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By Way of Introduction . . .

Our opening article, by MRS. CARRIE C. STEGALL, is not long, but it makes exciting reading for upper elementary school teachers. A sense of purpose in communication is essential to language learning. Mrs. Stegall knew how to supply the purpose. Incidentally, she will write for us a sequel, which promises to be at least as interesting as this article.

DR. DELWYN G. SCHUBERT sets forth familiar doctrine in his article on the classroom library, but it is doctrine still not widely enough observed. He makes numerous practical suggestions.

Every student in the field of reading knows of the work of Professor E. W. DOLCH. He has pioneered especially in the exploration of vocabulary problems, and, with Mrs. Dolch, in the development of instructional materials. His article in this issue will be of special interest to test-makers and users.

In addition to his position as Language Arts Collaborator, MARTIN J. WARNICK, author of "Correlated Reading and Spelling," is instructor in language arts, and faculty lecturer at Rosemont College, Rosemont, Pennsylvania.

DOROTHY VOLLBRECHT, who teaches first and second grades in the Marble School, of East Lansing, Michigan, reveals once more how the basal readers vary as to vocabulary content. She is at present working for her Master's degree at Michigan State College.

Vocabulary development remains one of the major interests of language arts teachers. DONALD HAMMERMAN reports

valuable research in methods of instruction in this area. He is a member of the Battle Creek schools camp staff.

The problem of bi-lingualism is faced by teachers in many parts of the United States. Mexican-American children, especially in schools of the Southwest, provide an example. Much has been done to help meet their needs. Mr. D. M. WILKINSON describes some of the newer practices.

When LEROY N. WOOD told us of his study at the time of our visit in Appleton, Wisconsin, recently, we urged him to send us his findings. He has restored our faith, at least in part, in the reliability of the readability formulas.

GUNNAR HORN's writings on educational journalism are well-known. His discussion in this issue of the elementary school newspaper is very elementary, but many of our readers are faced for the first time with the task of sponsoring one. They will be grateful for his mature counsel.

FRIEDA HENNOCK was in a "fighting" mood when she gave her address on educational television at the Los Angeles convention. It has been due in great measure to her willingness to fight in the public interest that educational television has been made possible for us and our children. We are glad to publish her remarks.

MILDRED A. DAWSON, who has just retired as chairman of the Council's Elementary Section Committee, is more active than ever in Council work and in language arts research. Her research summary in this issue will be of great value, particularly to other scientific workers in the field of language arts education.

ELEMENTARY ENGLISH

XXXI

APRIL, 1954

No. 4

Purposeful Writing

CARRIE COFFEY STEGALL¹

After days of class discussion during which the members of the eighth grade English class had finally arrived at their personal reasons for wanting an education, the teacher asked, "Does the study of English fit into these plans for your education?"

One brave boy blurted out, "I don't know a noun from a verb."

"Why should you know a noun from a verb?" asked the teacher.

"Well, shouldn't I?" he asked abashed.

"I don't know that you should."

"What?" chorused the class.

"We don't *have* to learn that stuff?" an incredulous youngster rejoiced.

"Not unless the class can find a reason for it."

"Why, our books were full of it last year," came from one.

"Yeah, but we didn't learn nothing," contributed another.

"Then *what* are we going to have in English this year?" inquired one suspiciously.

"What do you want to have in English?"

"Why we want to learn to talk right."

"Why?"

"Well—ah—so we can get a good job."

"So we won't be embarrassed when we

want to say something."

"To make money."

Then the teacher tossed a bomb into their midst. "I can name dozens of oil men here and near here who are quite wealthy, and they don't 'talk right.' Why not follow in their footsteps and forget English?"

"I might not be as lucky."

"I don't want to work in the oil field."

"There might not be enough oil jobs to go round."

"I want to be a banker."

"I want to be a sheriff or a farmer."

"I want to be a football coach."

"I want to be a movie star."

"How do you know that a knowledge of good English is necessary to success in these fields of endeavor?" asked the teacher.

"Well, aren't they?" amazed voices inquired.

"I don't know; I've never been a football coach or a sheriff."

"Ain't you supposed to know? You're a teacher," challenged one.

"But you must remember that I am *paid* to tell you that English is important. I make my living attempting to teach it. Therefore from my standpoint a knowledge of good English is most important to me, but that doesn't mean that it is important."

¹Teacher of Eighth Grade in Holliday, Texas.

ant to a sheriff," explained the teacher carefully.

"Yeah, and I don't want to be no English teacher," came from a belligerent non-conformist.

"Regardless of what you want to be, there must be someone, somewhere who can answer your questions. Can you think of anyone, anywhere in the world who might tell you if a knowledge of good English is important to success in the career of your choice?" suggested the teacher.

"If you can't, who can?" asked one doubting Thomas.

"If Roy wants to be a banker, who is the logical one for him to ask?"

"A banker, of course."

"Oh, I know what we could do, Mrs. Stegall. We could ask someone who is what we want to be."

"Sure," chorused a majority of voices bordering almost on enthusiasm.

"How could you ask thirty different, successful people to answer these questions in such a small place as this—with a population of only a thousand?"

"Why, write 'em letters, of course," blurted a boy struggling to conceal his disgust for such a dumb teacher.

"That sounds reasonable. Tommy, since you want to be a sheriff or a farmer, to whom would you write?"

"Weldon Bailey, the sheriff of Wichita County."

"And you, Roy, to be a banker?"

"Oral Jones, president of the City National Bank."

"To be a movie star?"

"Jane Wyman."

And so on. Names important to the children rolled from their tongues—Eleanor Roosevelt, Secretary Dulles, Kefauver,

Winston Churchill, Groucho Marx, Jane Wyman, and many names of less significance—a teacher, a county agent, an oil man, a college professor, a sheriff. Several children wanted time to think more seriously about what they wanted to be and to whom they wanted to write.

"If you will work diligently to come up with honest and unbiased answers, I promise you that I shall abide by your findings. If these thirty people to whom you write advise us that we are wasting time studying English, then I shall discard all my plans, and we shall find something else to do during this hour now allotted to an English class."

"Mrs. Stegall, do you *really* mean that?" surprised voices clamored.

"I *really* mean that. The responsibility of the class rests squarely on your shoulders. If we are to spend class time trying to find answers to your questions, I shall expect every member of the class to cooperate. If there are those who prefer spending their time studying nouns and verbs, I shall be happy to designate a portion of the class to them." (No one wanted to learn the parts of speech.)

"Oh! Boy! This is something! When do we start?" rejoiced a below-the-average youth.

"Now. If you'd like me to check pencilled copies of your letters before you do them in ink, I shall be happy to do so."

"Aw! You mean you're gonna grade them?" a disappointed voice inquired.

"Who said grade? I am merely offering my help. We can't follow through on this plan if your letters aren't answered. Receiving an answer will constitute mission completed, and as far as I'm concerned, that will constitute an A—if you

must have a grade. Do you like the idea?"

"Sure. Will you show us how to write a letter?"

"I'll be delighted—if you'll tell me what you want in your letters."

"Well, they will have to be well-written or the people might not answer them."

"What constitutes a well-written letter?"

"Good form."

"Neatness."

"Courtesy."

"Good spelling."

"Good sentences."

"Definite questions for them to answer."

"Yeah, but what if we do all that and they still don't answer?" inquired a skeptical one.

"I suggest that you write one letter each six weeks to a different person until you receive an answer. I shall withhold your A until the last six weeks. If then you have not received a reply, your sustained effort will have snowballed into that coveted A. Is that fair?"

"Sure!" shouted the class.

"Now to begin. What is good form?"

There was much disagreement about *how* and *where* to write different parts of a letter. The children were convinced that there was *one correct* way. The teacher assured them that as long as necessary information was clear and exact, form was of minor importance. To terminate doubt the teacher placed her own usual block form of heading, inside address, salutation, body, complimentary close, and signature on the board. Would they, she asked, like to use this form for the entire class and dispense with minor questions? Of course they

would. Punctuation and capitalization were mentioned incidentally, but definitely, in the discussion of form.

In like manner all the steps toward writing a good letter were reviewed and discussed at length. Two class periods were used for these discussions, and the more enthusiastic students began bringing in their first drafts. When several used fragmentary sentences, the fragments were read to the class, and sentence structure was discussed fully. Incidentally but necessarily, subjects and predicates, agreement of verb with subject, pronouns and antecedents, irregular verb forms, and other grammatical terms were mentioned, but except when a child demanded an explanation of a term, the teacher imposed none.

Two weeks were spent in class and out perfecting these letters. No one was willing for the least "error" to get by. Copying and recopying was purposeful and enthusiastic. During the teacher's off period which coincided with an eighth grade study period her room was invaded daily by boys and girls bent toward perfection. Many came after school for more help. Each child knew his own problems, and each wanted personal and exact information.

And how sweet was victory when the answers to the letters came pouring in! Parents and children exclaimed with delight. (The teacher beamed smugly.) The children laughed delightedly at the joke the teacher had played on them. These really successful people actually answered the letters, and these really important people were more convincing about the importance of the study of English than was the English teacher herself. It seemed that the "stuff" was worth studying after all—

even if it did take six weeks for the class to find it out.

The answers? They offer a wealth of propaganda for enough motivation to teach this group of eighth graders all the English they will ever need to learn. And the study of letter writing in this class? It is absolutely unnecessary; instead of

wasting time studying about *how* to write letters, the boys and girls are now happily engaged in composing beautifully written thank-you letters to some of the most famous and successful people in the world, those who have expressed their personal opinions on the importance of the study of English in the eighth grade.

A Classroom Library - An Invitation to Reading

DELWYN G. SCHUBERT¹

It's human to be lazy. Studies have shown that the amount of use children make of the public library is directly proportional to its distance from home and school. If we want children to read, books must be close at hand. School libraries are no longer sufficient. Libraries must invade the classroom.

The teacher who wishes to build a good classroom library must begin by answering a basic question. What kinds of subjects are my students interested in? This question is best answered by watching the children's daily behavior for indications of different reading interests. But to supplement daily observations, a good interest inventory should be employed. Excellent inventories for both elementary and secondary schools can be found, for example, in Witty and Kopel's *Reading and the Educative Process*.²

When interests have been catalogued, the teacher should consult the school librarian for suitable books. Cooperation be-

tween the teacher who knows her children and the librarian who knows her books will result in finding the "right book for the right child."

Approximately forty to fifty books of varying interest and difficulty levels should be selected for the classroom collection. Keeping the number below fifty is to be recommended because it is sufficiently large to permit some choice and at the same time small enough to keep the children from being confused by myriad titles. After a period of five or six weeks the books may be changed. This will be in keeping with the dynamic and expanding nature of the students' reading interests.

It is very important that the appearance of the reading corner be conducive to reading. If reading is done in pleasant sur-

¹Director of the reading clinic at the Los Angeles State College of Applied Arts and Sciences.

²P. A. Witty and D. Kopel, *Reading and the Educative Process*, (New York: Ginn and Company, 1939), appendix.

roundings, a positive form of conditioning will result, beneficial to reading activity. Children will enjoy reading in a spot that has attractively arranged flowers, colorful pictures on the walls, and bright curtains.

Book jackets, too, have great value in enhancing the attractiveness and interest in the reading corner. Colburn³ has some excellent suggestions along these lines. For example, the front cover of the book jacket can be cut out, mounted, and posted. In some cases, the teacher may wish to start a reference file for the children by pasting the front cover of the book jacket on one side of a sheet of mounting paper and a brief review on the back. Books with plain covers can be refurbished by pasting the front cover of the jacket on the front cover of the book. The title strips of a book jacket can be mounted and cut up for book marks. The front flap (this usually contains a good summary of the book) can be pasted inside the book facing the cover. If the back flap carries information about the author or illustrator, it can be mounted and filed for supplementary reference material.

To simplify children's finding books and to give the library corner an air of orderliness, a labeling system should be employed. Harris⁴ suggests classifying

books for this purpose under a few broad headings such as "make believe," "people and places," "real life stories," "animals," etc.

To generate interest ask the children to bring to school old editions of magazines from home. Children will appreciate a library corner more if they feel that they have contributed to it.

Encourage the students to build a reference file of their reactions to books read. These reviews should be brief and consist of the book title and the author. The student's signature will follow whatever comments he wishes to make. These comments should be made voluntarily. Under no circumstances should children be required to make long, detailed, and laborious book reports. Nothing will dampen a child's enthusiasm for leisure reading more readily.

If at all possible a daily period of at least thirty minutes should be devoted to recreational reading. Once the children are introduced to the pleasures of free silent reading, the library corner will make every free minute a golden one.

³E. Colburn, "A Device for Stimulating Reading Interests," *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. 44 (1944), pp. 539-541.

⁴A. Harris, *How To Increase Reading Ability*, (New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1947), p. 425.

Do Reading Tests Test Reading?

E. W. DOLCH¹

Good reading tests are certainly much needed, but the obstacles in their construction are enormous. These obstacles do not appear so clearly if one analyzes the reading tests themselves, taking them as the starting point. But if, on the contrary, one begins with the reading process, and makes the analysis from that point, the obstacles appear immediately. They have not been surmounted and there seems no present indication that they soon will be.

The two meanings of reading

Gatés has properly pointed out that reading has two meanings: (1) the *ability* to read, which enables one to deal with reading material which is presented to him. This ability is needed in order to hold a job; the more difficult the job, perhaps the greater the ability needed. But there is also the second meaning: (2) *wanting* to read. This desire to "go after" reading, to pursue it, as it were, is the thing that prepares one for a bigger and better job. It enlarges the personality. It leads to a fuller education. This is the more important of the two meanings of reading. Unfortunately, schools which drive after the *ability* to read only, often kill the *desire* to read. Children are actually made to hate reading. And many are graduated from our schools with sufficient ability to read but with an aversion to the use of reading for any but the most necessary purposes. There are, of course, no reading tests for this second meaning. But no one can measure the efficiency to a teacher or of a school by

using ability tests alone. No school or teacher has succeeded in teaching reading unless the pupils desire to use reading both for pleasure and for further learning.

Factors in reading ability

To analyze fairly tests of reading ability itself, we must recall that reading ability contains at least five factors. These are quite distinct. Definite methods are used for teaching each one. And a test cannot help a teacher or a school very much unless it tells which ones have been developed and how much, so that the teaching can be arranged accordingly.

1. *Sight Vocabulary* is the most widely used factor in reading. All reading tests call for this factor in greater or less degree. No test, however, tells us how large any individual's sight vocabulary is except by inference. Fourth graders are supposed to have a sight vocabulary of about 1,500 words, eighth graders 6,000 words, and so on. We infer that a pupil scoring high on a reading test has a large sight vocabulary, one scoring low, a low one. But we do not have any idea how much of the score is due to this ability. This factor can be measured by a check of a sampling of a dictionary or by the use of a word list, but no such method has been fully studied or standardized.

2. *Sounding Ability* is more or less involved in all reading tests, but we can never tell how much. Does the testee recognize the words by sight or by sounding?

¹University of Illinois.

There is no way to tell unless we use an oral reading test, such as Gray's. But it is very important how much sounding is used. The child who scores high only by use of a large sight vocabulary is definitely a poorer reader than the child who scores lower though he uses sounding on many words. This is true because the user of sight alone is strictly limited to his present sight vocabulary; he will never go beyond it. The sounder, on the contrary, can take more time but can read much more difficult and important material than the other. If we could only tell just what sounding children knew, we would know just what to teach them rather than to go over and over all the sounding principles as most schools do which use current sounding workbooks. We also need a test of sounding which will be done by sounding methods and not by sight or by using context. When we have a child read orally, we can watch his sounding and see just what he knows or does not know, but there is no standard test of this kind.

3. *Meaning Vocabulary* is the essence of reading comprehension, but there are no adequate tests for it. It is true, many tests have vocabulary sections, but in doing them, a child is strictly limited by his sounding ability. The words used go beyond the sight vocabulary; hence they must be sounded. But if a child cannot sound a word, he has no idea what the word is; hence he cannot tell whether or not he knows the meaning. We can read these vocabulary tests aloud to the children to get around sounding, but then we have not followed the standard directions. Likewise, no vocabulary test measures more than the first degree of meaning of any word. For instance, in present tests we find

such things as that a colonel is an officer, without regard to what he commands, whether he is in the army or navy or what not. We find that an orange is a fruit, similar perhaps to a grape or to whatever the child of a certain locality thinks of as a fruit. So no present vocabulary tests more than touch the vast fund of meaning involved in words. If we look at the dictionary, we find that nearly every word has more than one meaning. But no vocabulary test adequately deals with this fact.

4. *Sentence Comprehension* is, after word meaning, the basis of all comprehension, since it takes a sentence to express a complete thought. Study of reading difficulty has shown that sentence length or complexity is one of the major factors in reading difficulty. But no reading test has correlated its sentence length with these studies in reading difficulty. It is true, as the selections in a test get more difficult, the sentences in general become longer, but we never know how much of this factor is present. And we need comprehension of the exact meaning of a sentence, not of its vague general meaning. If the sentence says, "The old man walked falteringly down the street," it is not enough to comprehend that a man walked down the street. The testee must have realized what kind of a man and how he walked. That is, a sentence contains more than one idea, as counting of ideas has shown. Comprehension means getting all the ideas, not just a few of them. We are discouraged by investigations which have shown that most adult persons get half or less of the ideas of any selection read. This can be verified by anyone who will ask a student to read a selection and then tell what he has read. A section calling for this kind of recall ap-

pears in a recent reading test, but in that test only.

5. *Larger Unit Comprehension* means the understanding of the main point, the large divisions, or the paragraph points. Present reading tests do much better on this factor than on any of the others. They are limited, of course, by the multiple choice method used. That is, they do not actually ask the reader to find out the main idea or paragraph point, but actually present that idea or point to him, mixed up with what are intended to be confusing foils. He is actually asked to recognize an idea rather than to find it. This requires some reading ability and intelligence, but it does not call for the process actually used in reading which requires the reader to blend together all the ideas read, to compare and balance them, and thus to arrive at the main idea. That is thinking. Recognition may be a sign of thinking, but it is not the process itself.

In summary, we are forced to say that present reading tests actually measure a kind of mixture of the various factors in reading, without one's knowing how much of any one of them is included. When a child gets a certain result on a reading test, we never know or will know how much it represents of sight vocabulary, sounding ability, word meaning, sentence comprehension, or larger unit comprehension. If that child makes a low score, he needs teaching. Teaching of what? That is the problem facing every teacher and every school.

In addition, children get results on reading tests by various processes which are factors in study and not in reading at all. A rapid survey of these will show the situation clearly.

Factors in study

Reading is a smooth, continuous process, both of eye movements and of comprehension. The eyes go regularly ahead, and the comprehension follows. Just as soon as this continuous forward progress is impossible, reading as such stops, and study begins. It should be obvious that reading tests are purposely built so that they include both reading and study. In a test which presents progressive difficulty, the start is very easy. The child begins to read the test. But sooner or later, difficulties are met with. Words appear which cannot be read but must be sounded out. Words of unknown meaning are introduced. The sentences get too long, and so on. Long before the child gets to his stopping point, he is using every study device he knows to somehow get the right answers.

We will know about this situation if we will just have a child do any standard reading test aloud and listen to what he does. He does begin to read at the start, but soon gets into study. We will know the situation also if we compute the speed with which children do reading tests. Take the point on any test which children of a certain grade are supposed to reach, according to the published norm. Count the words up to that point. Then divide by the time allowed the child. The resulting speed in words per minute will be just about half the standard reading speed for that grade.

To see just what kind of study is involved in our so-called reading tests, let us consider the various factors in study.

1. *All reading factors* are necessarily involved in study. The five we have listed are part of reading, but they are also part of study, and mastery of them is part of

study ability.

2. *Skip and Guess ability* is an essential part of all study. When children meet words they do not know or ideas they do not comprehend, they must guess at what they are or skip over them and go on without too great disturbance. As the items in any reading test get harder and harder, the children must skip and guess more and more. All we know, of course, is whether or not they mark the right answers, not how they got those answers. If getting the right answers is the correct criterion, of course it does not matter how they got them, whether they actually could read or whether they could guess. We grade them by the answers only. We then have the added problem of whether the test called for the answers it should have called for and whether the right number of answers was called for. If a test paragraph contains seven sentences or seven statements of thought and only three answers are called for by the test, obviously much skipping is possible.

3. *Skimming ability* is important for many kinds of study. A skilled reader lets his eyes skim along the material, and pertinent items seem to jump to his attention. That this is a dangerous ability is shown on examinations, when a student only skims the question rather than reads it and therefore answers what he thought was asked rather than just what was asked. It is surely advisable to measure skimming ability, but skimming should not be considered a substitute for real reading. College instructors find the skimming habits of their students most irritating. The instructor wants the students to ponder each statement, each qualification or possible inference; instead, all he gets is skimming

for a vague idea of the whole. In the elementary school, many teachers of content subjects are compelled to require that material be read aloud so as to get reading rather than mere skimming.

4. *Selective reading* is a much more important habit than skimming. There is so much to read these days that one can read only the important portions, such as the introduction, the conclusion, and so on. In doing a reading test, many children discover that all they need to read is the last sentence of the paragraph in order to get the answers asked for. In this case we are not getting the reading of the paragraph but only of part of it. Even in tests which contain blanks to be filled out, the student may discover that generally all he needs to read is the sentence which contains the blanks; he can tell from that what should be written in. This is a use of selective reading ability that tends to defeat the purpose of the test.

5. *Finding answers to questions* is a method very common in school, but almost completely absent in daily life. The newspaper does not have questions to which you find the answers. You just read the newspaper. Magazine articles do not begin with questions to be answered. So it is very doubtful whether the school should spend time developing a skill to be used in school only. But students use this skill constantly in doing reading tests. They quickly find out that it is faster to read the questions, and then look in the paragraph for answers, using skimming or selective reading. A reading test could avoid this by having the reading on one page and the questions on the back, without permitting turning over of the sheet, but this is seldom done. Of course finding

answers is a definite study skill, used constantly in geography and other subjects. The test maker may be thinking of that fact. But this is study and not reading as it is defined by all authorities.

Conclusion

From all that has been pointed out, it is clear that present reading tests measure a mixture of factors in reading and that these tests are done by the children by using a mixture of reading abilities and of study abilities. Practically, one may say that these tests are all we have and that they must therefore be used, but with caution.

But are our present reading tests the last word?

It is to be hoped that in the future there may be added study of the construction of reading tests. It is to be hoped that tests will measure definite factors both in reading and in study in such a way that the results will tell us just what to teach. Teachers believe that present tests are for supervisory purposes only. They may serve such purposes. But it is to be hoped that in the future tests will come to be aids to teaching. And for them to be such aids, they must be worked out from an analysis of reading and of study such as we have suggested.

The Correlated Reading Spelling Context Method

MARTIN J. WARNICK¹

The Correlated Reading Spelling Context Method is planned to help children who have reading problems. Reading is readiness for spelling. A child who can read the word he wants to use for writing has a better chance to master the spelling of that word. Therefore, it behooves the teacher to present words in context form and make sure his pupils can read them with meaning and understanding.

This method was tried with average and slower learners with satisfying results, but has little value where no reading difficulty exists. However, the teacher can utilize the method with an entire class. The

pupils who have reading problems follow the plan suggested under Part A, *Group Activities* and Part B, *Independent Study Activities*, while the pupils with no reading difficulties are grouped for independent study as planned in Part B. The teacher may plan more writing experiences for the accelerated pupils while the others are having their group activities under Part A. Thus, since all pupils do not reach the same degree of readiness for spelling at the same time, the Correlated Reading Spelling Context Method provides for grouping for instruction.

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THE CORRELATED READING SPELLING CONTEXT METHOD

Part A. Group Activities

1. Develop Experience
 - a. Group experience
 - b. Individual experience
 - c. Teacher experience
2. Develop Context on Blackboard
 - a. Teacher prints the story in paragraph form
 - b. Teacher controls vocabulary, sentence structure, and length of sentence
3. Word Attack Methods
 - a. Phonic and structural analysis of words that may be new to the peer group.
 - b. Develop context clues
 - c. Word study techniques
4. Encourage Silent Reading
5. Review the Reading
 - a. Question the children using:
 - (1) inferential questions
 - (2) factual questions
 - (3) vocabulary questions
6. Concert Reading
 - a. The entire group reads in unison to:
 - (1) improve phrasing
 - (2) increase rate of reading.
7. Encourage fringe participants to read the context, and drill the recognition of sight words.
Do not pressure.
8. Record Context
 - a. Spelling notebooks could be arranged as suggested.
 - b. Emphasis should be on accuracy of copying context from blackboard, neatness, good handwriting, and written expression.

Part B. Independent Study Activities

1. *See* the Word
 - a. Structural analysis
"See" and "hear" the little word in a big word and identify it by the box mark, | |.
Example: | cup | | board |
 | at | | ten | | dance |
 - b. Phonetic analysis
"See" and "hear" sounds and identify it with the canoe mark,
Example: | pa | | per |
 | se | | cu | | ri | | ty |
 - c. Combined analysis
"See" and "hear" sounds and little words in a big word.
Example: | th | | ink |
 | re | | print |
2. *Pronounce* the word . . . three or four times. Hear the word in your "mind" as you say it silently and at the same time picture it.
3. *Exercise* the Word.
Write it as many times as you need to in order to be sure of the correct spelling. Test yourself by closing your eyes and writing the word two times. If you cannot do this, write the word and think about the "seeing" and "hearing" of the word until you succeed in writing the word correctly two times with your eyes shut.
4. *Look* at the Word
Check or proofread the words on your exercise sheet to be sure you practiced them correctly.
5. *Learn* to Use the Word.
Write a sentence for each word or utilize all the words in a paragraph.
6. *Test* the Words
The teacher or pairs of pupils within the group can test to see how well the words were mastered. Words that are now spelled incorrectly become the "Demons" and are recorded in the Demon column of the spelling notebook. This implies that the pupil will have to study the word again at home until mastery is attained.

Suggested Format for The Spelling Notebook

(Context Copied From the Blackboard)

February 5, 1954

We are building a rock collection in the show case. Today, Mr. Clark talked to us about rocks in the assembly. Afterwards, he came to our room and told us the names of some rocks we brought to school. Now our rocks have a tag telling what it is. The rocks will be in our science exhibit, May 27, 1954.

1.	build	ing	3.	as	sem	bly
2.	to	day	4.	br	ought	

(Pupil's experience for Learning to Use the Word)

In our school building today, Mr. Clark visited our assembly. He helped us understand more about rocks. Mr. Clark brought us tags for our rocks and promised to send more.

DEMONS

assembly
brought

*Vocabulary Analysis of Thirteen
Second Grade Readers*

DOROTHY M. VOLLBRECHT¹

During recent years more and more attention has been focused on the teaching of reading and on reading materials. Analyses show that grade designation by the author or publisher of textbooks does not necessarily give a true picture of the vocabulary burden of the book. If teachers are to meet children's individual differences, they must be sure of the vocabulary content of the materials. Teachers frequently need to choose materials to supplement the basic reading text. We must be careful so as not to thrust too great a burden on the slow or average reader. However, a book with new words and ideas will challenge the fast learner.

Modern reading books have carefully controlled the quantitative aspect of their vocabularies, but it was the purpose of this study to show the varying degree of dif-

ficulty between the thirteen series of second grade reading texts. The difficulty of the reading book was evidenced by the number of new words presented, the number of new words found only in that series, and the per cent of the total vocabulary these words comprise.

The vocabulary listings in each of twenty-one individual reading books were compiled alphabetically and in such a manner that the series in which each word was presented was shown. With regard to the size of the new vocabulary presented in each series, we find a range of from 236 to 598 total words. From 22 to 130 words are found in one series only, with these words making up from 6 to 26 per cent of the total new vocabulary.

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WORDS PRESENTED FOR THE FIRST TIME IN EACH OF
13 SECOND GRADE READING SERIES

Series	Total Words Introduced for the First Time	Total Words Found in no Other Series	Percent of Words Found in no Other Series
1	598	130	22
2	552	57	10
3	516	86	17
4	473	48	10
5	447	58	13
6	440	53	12
7	419	26	6
8	410	98	24
9	380	98	26
10	353	62	18
11	349	37	11
12	260	38	15
13	236	22	9

Table I. Note: This table is to be read as follows: Series 1 has a new vocabulary of 598 words, 130 of these words are found only in this series, and they comprise 22 per cent of the total vocabulary.

The total new vocabulary presented in all thirteen series totaled 1914 different words. These words and their frequency, that is, the number of series teaching these words as new words, are to be found in Table II. It is interesting to note that there is no word which is taught as a new word in all thirteen or even twelve of the thirteen series.

VOCABULARY SUMMARY

805 words in the study were found in	1 series
342 words	2 series
222 words	3 series
142 words	4 series
129 words	5 series
88 words	6 series
68 words	7 series
43 words	8 series
41 words	9 series
21 words	10 series
13 words	11 series
0 words	12 series
0 words	13 series

Table II. Note: This table should be read as follows: Of the 1914 different words involved in the study, 805 words were found in only one series.

This study has been concerned with the technical aspect of the vocabulary presented in these series of reading books. To the individual choosing a series for use in his school, this technical aspect of vocabulary is only one, but an important one, of the many factors to be considered. The physical character of the book—the humor, appeal, the timeliness of the stories, and the length and construction of the sentences must be considered.

We have noted the wide range of differences in vocabulary factors among the reading books intended for use in the second grade. In order to know the exact relationship between two series of readers, it would be necessary to check the vocabularies word by word. It is hoped that we have pointed out a need on the part of the instructor to know not only the degree of difficulty of the basic series, but also to know the relationship of supplementary materials to that basic reading series.

Vitalizing Vocabulary

DONALD R. HAMMERMAN¹

Presented below are a few methods which the writer has found to be successful in developing vocabulary with upper elementary school children.

Directed group reading

Upon the first silent reading of a story or article, the children are instructed to list any words which they cannot pronounce or do not understand. After the story has been discussed thoroughly and comprehension checked, attention is given to the various words which the pupils have listed. The teacher, beforehand, has selected three or four words which may be new or difficult to the children, and writes these on the blackboard in the following form:

"to unravel some pieces of long rope." p. 201, last par.

"in this old barge." p. 201, par. 4.

"He crept forward timidly." p. 203, par. 4.

"our tails get that tingly feeling." p. 205, par. 3.

Various members of the group read these phrases, paying particular attention to proper pronunciation of the underlined words. The teacher assists the child by using word analysis clues such as, helping him to see words within words, substituting familiar words, or words that sound alike except for the initial consonant sound, etc. The children next refer to their books, and reread silently the sentence and paragraph in which the underlined word appears in an effort to derive its meaning from context. The pupils then use the word in some of their own sentences, while the teacher leads them to discover any

multiple meanings or different shades of meaning it may have. Next the students "look up" the word in their dictionaries to check their own definitions of it, and lastly they use the words in a number of short drills. For example:

1. The teacher has the children read the phrase on the board that he points to.

2. The children are directed to read the phrase which has the word that means — (the teacher supplies a definition).

3. The children read the phrase that the teacher checks.

4. The children are directed to write the word that has the same meaning as the underlined word or words in the following sentences:

a. She couldn't untwist her hair.

b. He looked down from the ladder as if he were afraid.

c. A cold shower gives your skin a stinging feeling.

d. The detective solved the mystery.

e. He pushed through the crowd.

5. Finally the children write sentences in which they use each of the new words studied.

Audio-visual materials

The use of films, filmstrips, slides, and records affords a rich source of material in developing meaningful vocabulary.

One technique is to have the words which the teacher wishes to introduce on the blackboard before showing the film. Some students may recognize several of the words; in this case a brief discussion may

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precede the showing, during which some meanings will be attached to certain words. The pupils are then directed to listen carefully to the narrator (in the case of filmstrips and slides, it will be the teacher), in an effort to recognize the designated words as they are pronounced; they will also attempt to ascertain their meanings from context.

Following the showing, attention is again directed to the words on the blackboard. Proper pronunciation is stressed, and various meanings of the words discussed.

Stories and poems read to the class for appreciation

When stories or poems are being read to the class for enjoyment or appreciation, the reader is usually the teacher or one of the better readers in the group.

Members of the audience listen carefully for new words to add to their vocabularies. This of course calls for a high degree of auditory discrimination on the part of the listening pupils.

All of the words which the teacher intended to introduce through the story or poem may not be identified at the first reading. Several re-readings may be necessary before all the desired terms are dealt

with. These supplementary readings may take the form of merely reading over a line or phrase at a time, and having the pupils listen for new words in the one particular line.

Incidental teaching

Another technique that is very satisfactory for introducing new words is through informal, or incidental teaching. Such instances crop up innumerable times each day. It might occur during a sharing period first thing in the morning, that a child will use a "choice word" in the sharing of some information with the rest of his classmates. The teacher may take time immediately to point out the particular word, and explore its various meanings and uses with the class, or better yet, other members of the class may take note of new words as they are spoken. After the sharing period, the listening students present words or terms which they have noted as being new; the teacher may then carry on development of the words from that point.

The development of vocabulary is naturally a continuous project, not just a subject to be dealt with one hour a day, but an ever-expanding search for new words which can vitalize every subject or topic of discussion.

Self-Realization and Group Living through Language Development

D. H. WILKINSON¹

In 1950-51, a new-type classroom situation was set up for Mexican-American children entering the primary schools in Harlingen, Texas. No effort was made to group the children in a particular way or select a special type of pupil for the project. The developmental approach was used with this group of six and seven year old Spanish speaking children chiefly because the teacher wanted to try a different type of program than she had formerly used in teaching children in the first grade. The following specifics characterized the project in language development:

Goals agreed upon by the teacher, principal, and curriculum coordinator were:

- To develop an understanding of and ability to speak English.

- To develop concepts and meanings of words used in talking, exchanging ideas, and working and playing together.

- To provide an emotional climate in the classroom where the children may feel relaxed, explore interests, and develop a sense of belonging in situations for learning.

- To utilize the background and experiences from the home in assimilating the children from different racial and ethnic groups into cultural patterns representative of the American way of life.

- To establish a closer working relationship between the school and the home.

- To set up situations in which the children may choose or select things with which to work or play some time during the day.

- To establish "centers of interest" as vehicles for developing language and provide experiences for working in groups.

To provide opportunities for children to develop special abilities in the creative arts.

To use our understanding of how children learn, and their interests and needs at different maturity levels as a basis for developing techniques and evaluating progress of the individuals.

The program was begun with seven centers or types of classroom activities. The titles given to the centers were: wood-working, arts and crafts, sewing, library (books and magazines), science, modeling, and "skills table." The teacher, Mrs. Flossie McBride, spent most of her time working with an individual child or a small group at the "skills table." Quite a few materials had been collected before school opened, and on the opening day the teacher arranged them on tables about the room. The children selected their activity and no effort was made by the teacher to arbitrarily assign individuals to certain working areas. In relating this situation to a group of teachers a few months later, Mrs. McBride said, "At first there seemed to be disorganization, but the atmosphere gradually leveled off during the first five or six weeks."

The sewing center was the most popular with the girls at first, and the boys gave more attention to the blocks and wood-working tools. Most of the children moved from center to center as time passed (sometimes an individual may work in as many as three places during a school day).
¹Supervisor of elementary schools, El Paso, Texas.

dren who could speak a little English were invited, after a few days of exploring activities in the room, to the "skills table" to talk with the teacher or just play with some object in the room. When the invitation for such activity was first given, there were only two children who responded and came to the table (there were about thirty-two in the group when the program got under way.) After four weeks all of the children in the class had participated in activities at the "skills center" except two members of the group.

Materials for the project were secured in various ways. The children brought many things from home. Newsprint and scrap paper were donated by the *Valley Morning Star*, a local newspaper. Cloth materials were secured from the J. C. Penny and C. R. Anthony Stores in Harlingen. Small blocks of lumber were collected from various lumber yards. Discarded light bulbs were used in art work; flour, salt, and cake coloring, used in mixing paste, were brought from the homes of the pupils. The following questions and answers were forthcoming at a meeting of teachers in November, after the program had been under way for three months:

- Q. Do the children seem to take turns at the interest centers?
- A. Yes (answers given by the teacher)
- Q. Do they ever "jump" from one center to another?
- A. At times, but more often they remain with one activity practically all day.
- Q. Do you believe this plan encourages sharing?
- A. I believe it does.
- Q. Approximately how long do the children stay at the skills table?
- A. I try to keep them not longer than 10 to 12 minutes.
- Q. Do you ever suggest follow work from the activity at the skills center?

A. Yes, sometimes I suggest a picture that they may draw or manipulate a puzzle, play with a toy, or color. Sometimes I suggest something for variety or an activity I think might provide for self-expression.

Q. Does interest seem to lag when a child leaves a working group for another activity?

A. No, the children seem to accept it as a part of the routine.

Although no attempt was made to evaluate the project after the first year in operation, the following information may give some indication as to the achievement in subject matter areas: (report summarized achievement from September to February) ten children had read five primers; fifteen had read experience charts; five were beginning their first primer; five were doing readiness activities; and ten were working with blocks, objects, and toys. The children in the last group had been in school only a few weeks, most of them having entered after the Christmas holidays.

Other than socialization and emotional release values, the "interest centers" approach seemed to offer other advantages. It is necessary to do something in order to talk about it or relate meaningful incidents in group discussion. It is through doing that children's own personal living can take on attitudes and behavioral patterns which have transfer value outside the schoolroom environment. In referring to the reinforcement of understanding by doing, Strang² wrote:

Children need to talk. That is the way they clarify their concepts. The ideal situation for the development of oral language is one in which the children have experiences which they want to talk about and

²Ruth Strang, "Language Development of Elementary School Children," *Education*, 72:224-229 (October '51)

someone who wants to hear what they have to say.

With another group of Spanish speaking children one year later the program was modified to include the following types of activities: science-library center, play house with dolls and toy furniture, games and toys, arts and crafts, and language development activities such as games, songs, stories, etc., where the teacher works with a small group of children. A daily program was characterized by activities such as games, songs, stories, etc., where the teacher works with a small group of children. A daily program was characterized by activities such as: (1) talking time with all the children participating—birthdays, current happenings, pets and toys were used as subjects of conversation; (2) rhythmic activities; (3) small group activities, children selecting their center of interest. During this period the teacher worked with a small group on skills or fundamentals of language (speaking, listening, or reading); (4) games and recreational activities (physical education scheduled on playground, ordinarily); (5) dramatizations and story telling; (6) creative expression: art, music, handicrafts; and (7) emotional release activities: coloring, modeling clay, playing with toys and objects.

The language development program is still a curriculum project in the Harlingen schools. Plans are under way to operate four classroom units which will use this approach with children entering school for the first time in 1953. Two aspects of the program should characterize the project next year which were not emphasized previously: namely, concept formation in learning, rather than words, as a basis for

reading readiness. Research is needed to determine what concepts are necessary for Spanish speaking children to achieve in school and what concepts should be developed at the various levels in the primary grades. Also attention is being given to acculturation processes in education. Teachers and administrators are interested in finding resources from the Mexican-American culture which may be utilized to enrich the curriculum in the elementary school.

Resources in the forms of games, songs, rhythms, folk lore, and dramatization are representatives of vehicles to be used for developing language and providing a classroom atmosphere that is understanding and permissive in the area of human relations. Examples may be found in Nina F. Millen, *Children's Games from Many Lands*, pp. 87-131 (Friendship Press, 1951).

The classroom teacher working with a group of children in a program of language development and intercultural relationships should be keenly interested in the welfare of children and acceptable to the idea of the worth of all mankind. She should keep in mind the basic similarities which unite all human beings despite their cultural differences. The school administrator should possess a philosophy of child growth and development and value the humanistic approach to school improvement. Also he should reach out into the homes and community for activities which may contribute to the program. Sources of materials which are helpful in developing wholesome attitudes may be found in Rachel Davis-Dubois, "National Unity Through Intercultural Education," p. 5. *U. S. Office of Education Bulletin*, Educa-

tional and National Defense Series, Pamphlet No. 10, January, 1943.

A teacher who can speak both English and Spanish should be more effective, other qualifications being equal, in this type of program. There are two objectives in using Spanish to designate names of games, characters, or songs in classroom experiences. The Spanish name should help to clarify meanings and give a clue to understanding what is being undertaken by the individual or group. Also it is a psychological factor which should contribute to the learning process.

If a teacher considers the emotional climate for learning and understands the basic needs of young children, she will not hesitate to use Spanish when she feels it adds something to the situation to enrich meanings. If the children enter school without ability to speak English, a teacher might make them feel at ease by speaking a few words now and then in their vernacular. Just saying "adios" or "buenos dias" should make a contribution to the learning situation.³ The teacher may use Spanish to clarify meanings, and to establish emotional adjustment when she feels it is necessary.

This concept is considered a positive

³Ruby Payne, "Learning to Say Good Morning as Well as Buenos Dias," *National Education Association Journal*, 41:165, (March '52).

approach to curriculum development and improved home-school relations. No longer do educators rely on rules or regulations regarding human behavior to reveal causal factors or provide clues in working with people. No longer do teachers in a modern school make rules to prevent the speaking of foreign languages on the school premises. Opportunities are provided for experiences which call for the use of English in expressing an idea or exchanging information. Looking at the situation from an intercultural point of view, it is a natural thing for the Mexican-American child to hold on to his native language when he comes to school. Not only should this factor be understood, but the teacher should use this as a vehicle for developing self-realization and emotional adjustment in classroom experiences. These factors should provide for a more effective instructional program for language development in the primary school.

Other useful references for teachers of bilingual children are:

Frances Toor, *A Treasury of Mexican Folkways*. New York: Crown Publishers, 1947.

Ruth E. Wasley, "Sources of Realia for the Teacher of French and Spanish," *The Modern Language Journal*, 36 (January, 1952), 10-15.

Readability of Certain Textbooks

LEROY N. WOOD¹

The recognition of the human growth principle of individual difference has for many years had a profound effect on educational theory and practice. In seeking to meet the varying needs of the many different personalities found in a classroom, educators have long sought to find materials suitable to the needs and abilities of the pupils. From these efforts have grown methods which seek to measure the difficulty of materials used in classroom situations, and attempts to make these classroom materials more suitable.

With so much of learning activities dependent on reading skills, one main field of research in suitability of classroom teaching materials has been in measuring the extent of "readability" of the materials. For this purpose several reading formulas have been developed.

The research here reported had several purposes: (1) to measure some ordinary and typical classroom texts according to more than one reading formula and see how they rank in difficulty according to these formulas; (2) to discover the opinions of a group of teachers experienced in using those same textbooks and determine their beliefs concerning the difficulty of the texts; (3) to compare the formula results and the teachers' opinions and to determine the extent of agreement or disagreement concerning the results; (4) to compare each individual teacher's opinions regarding the textbooks with the number of years teaching experience that teacher had, and to see what possible effect it might have on the answers given.

Summary of the study

Twelve intermediate grade textbooks were rated by two reading readability formulas, the Yoakam and the Dale-Chall, to determine their grade placement. Thirty-two intermediate grade classroom teachers who used these textbooks in their classrooms were questioned to determine

their evaluations of these same books.

The teacher evaluations and the reading formula evaluations were compared to see to what extent they agreed or disagreed. Each teacher's opinion as to how many of the textbooks of her grade she thought suitable was compared to the number of years teaching experience she possessed.

Conclusions

The results as shown by the two formulas tend to be in agreement on placement of the textbooks used, for the most part being within three-tenths of a grade apart on results.

Teacher opinions expressed approval of all the science books, approval of all three of the health books, approval of two geography books, and approval of one history book.

Formula ratings of the same books expressed great approval of all science books, approval of two of the health books, approval of one of the three geography books, and approval of one of the three history books. By approval is meant that the book was rated by the formulas as being within the grade range in which it was used. A book was classified as disapproved when one or both formulas classified it above the grade in which it was used.

The teachers and formulas agreed on the science books. The teachers approved of all three health books while formula results approved of two. The teachers approved of two geography books while the formulas approved of one. The teachers disapproved of the same two history books that the formulas did.

Teachers thus thought nine books were suitable while the formulas thought seven were suitable.

Other criteria besides vocabulary were used by teachers in rejecting a book, as in the case of the fourth grade geography book.

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FORMULA GRADE-PLACEMENTS AND NUMBER OF TEACHERS WHO APPROVED EACH BOOK

Book	Yoakam Grade Placement	Dale-Chall Grade Placement	Novice Group	Intermediate Group	Advanced Group	Total Approving	Total Questioned
Exploring in Science	4.71	4.60	4	2	4	10	12
Working With Science	5.25	5.27	4	1	4	9	10
New Ideas in Science	6.76	5.11	3	2	5	10	10
Healthful Ways	4.88	4.89	5	2	3	10	12
Let's Be Healthy	6.12	5.4	4	0	5	9	10
Habits Healthful and Safe	6.41	5.6	3	2	3	8	10
Life in Early America	5.02	4.19	0	0	1	1	12
Life in Modern America	5.94	6.32	2	0	1	3	10
Other Lands and Other Times	5.91	5.11	3	2	5	10	10
Visits in Other Lands	4.65	4.97	1	2	2	5	12
American Nations	6.46	6.2	3	1	2	6	10
Nations Overseas	8.18	8.31	1	1	4	6	10

Teachers in all experience groups tended to approve of the same numbers of books and of the same books.

A strong trend of agreement between formulas and teachers' opinions seems indicated with nearly the same numbers of books agreed upon as satisfactory.

Since occasional disagreement occurred, use of the formulas in selecting textbooks should be used *with* teacher judgment in selecting textbooks rather than replacing teacher judgment.

General closeness of results makes either the Yoakam or the Dale-Chall formula suitable for the above purpose. Because of the greater ease in use and nearly equivalent results, the Yoakam rather than the Dale-Chall seems most practical for choosing textbooks.

Number of years teaching experience

seemed to have no significant effect on the number of textbooks chosen as satisfactory.

Suggestions for further study

A study should be made of this nature involving greater numbers of teachers in some larger cities.

Other formulas should be tested against teacher judgment to see extent of agreement.

Groups of teachers should be questioned to see to what extent such factors as vocabulary, content, and typography affect their judgment of a textbook's suitability to determine what factors they consider important in determining suitability of a book for a certain grade level.

Larger groups of teachers should be interviewed to see to what extent years of teaching experience affects their judgments.

The Elementary School Newspaper

GUNNAR HORN

Since space is at a premium in the mimeographed newspaper, an appropriate slogan might be, "The news, all the news, and nothing but the news." It is not good practice to reprint jokes, or indeed any material already found in print.

News may be sought through beats, special assignments, and incidental gathering. A beat is a regular assignment of some particular source of news, such as the office, teachers, the nurse, club officers, the custodian.

A special assignment covers sources not included in beats, such as an interview with a visiting speaker, an investigation about tardiness, or a story about a renovated gymnasium.

In addition, some news will be gathered incidentally. Every member of the newspaper staff should keep his eyes and ears open for possible news items, giving

serious consideration to even the smallest.

Selection of the staff members is of great importance because of the responsibility involved in their work. If the school is to develop a good newspaper, it must have a staff which is industrious, responsible, accurate, and courteous. Selected on the basis of these characteristics, the staff should also be given suitable training.

News writing represents a specialized field. The task of the news writer is to sort the available facts about a particular item, arrange them in the order of importance, and write a readable story around them. The news writer must first see the picture clearly himself; then he must present it so the reader will see it clearly.

The newspaper story is told three times: in the headline, in the lead (*lead*), or first paragraph, and in the body of the article. The headline presents a short sum-

mary of the story. The lead is a second summary, usually a sentence or two in length, and answering the five questions: What happened? When did it happen? Where did it happen? Why did it happen? Whom did it concern? These are called the five W's.

With all the information before him, the reporter must decide on the order in which to answer the questions so that he will give the reader the most interesting or most important information first. The body of the story is a connected and detailed account.

Some basic suggestions for the news-writer might be: Use short paragraphs, normally from six to ten typed lines of the proper column width. Write each sentence so clearly that it does not have to be read more than once to be understood. Do not bring in any personal opinion.

The better papers do not print the writers' names at the ends of the stories. A real newspaper is a group product, and names detract from this effect. When the stories are anonymous it is easier to establish pride in the newspaper as a whole. The entire staff may properly be listed on the masthead, usually placed on page two at the bottom of the left-hand column.

The makeup, or arrangement of material, on each page is important as this is what gives the reader his first impression. Those items which interest the greatest number of readers should be allotted the most important space in the paper, usually the first page and the upper parts of the following pages. The front page should be balanced, or so organized, that the right and left halves resemble each other, or appear to the eye to have about the same "weight." This artistic balance is achieved

by columnning, by the proper arrangement of stories and drawings in each column, and by selecting the appropriate size of lettering for headlines. The best effect can be achieved by dividing the page into three columns.

Before cutting stencils, the editor and his assistants should draw up a dummy, or map, indicating the placement of the stories, showing the space needed for each, and indicating the size of each headline.

The largest headlines should be at the top of page one. These headlines should normally be two or three lines. One-line heads may be used lower on the page and on following pages. If time and thought are devoted to the headlines, it is usually possible to write headlines which fill the width of the column, with all the lines nearly the same length.

A common fault of mimeographed papers is that the pages are crowded. Allowing liberal margins and ample space between items may necessitate an additional page, but the improvement in appearance is well worth it.

The name of the newspaper should extend across the top of the front page and should be printed in letters large enough to distinguish it clearly from any headlines. Under the name should appear the dateline, usually set off by lines above and below it, giving the volume (year) and number of the issue, the name of the school, and the date of publication.

Newspapers should be stapled at the side to distinguish them from bulletins, which are usually stapled at the top or in the upper left-hand corner. Newspapers never have covers. The front page is itself the attractive feature of a newspaper and should not be hidden.

"Learning English the Hard Way"

FRIEDA B. HENNOCK¹

Last month in an educational newsletter I read an editorial entitled, "A Note of Appreciation." The theme was simple—that appreciation for a job well done, is rarely expressed.

My appearance before you today gives me the opportunity to express my "Note of Appreciation." You teachers have given me not only help—but inspiration. I am grateful for the support you gave me in our fight to establish the principle of reserving television channels for noncommercial educational TV use. I am aware of the obstacles which will confront you in your efforts to make educational television a reality in your communities. But the example of the past gives me faith that you will meet the challenge of the future.

For, now that the channels have been reserved, there remains the most important task of all—that of building the noncommercial educational television stations and getting them on the air. To accomplish this, your help as educators is essential; and it is needed *now*. My purpose today is to impress upon you the necessity of having your own educational television stations and the part you can play in making them a reality.

What is educational television? By educational television, let me make clear, I mean the operation by schools of their own TV stations completely on a noncommercial basis. The programs should be primarily devoted to serving the educational and cultural needs with a significant regard to the recreational and varied civic needs of the community and all of its people. Education today rightfully has a two-fold concern about our modern mass media of communications: (1) the impact of these media on classroom procedures and (2) their effect upon children and adults outside the classroom.

First, in the classroom itself, television offers education a teaching tool of unusual force.

TV will give the teacher the assistance of a new, graphic and dynamic visual aid that cannot but make her or him a better and more effective teacher. With a television receiver in every schoolroom, magnificent programs can be shaped to meet the needs of all classes from kindergarten through college. Using the finest personnel and material from the entire nation, as well as the local community, educational TV will make available to every student what no single class, school, or even system could afford. Just to name the class suggests at once a television program which will make it more informative and effective. Thus, music students could see Toscanini in action; geography classes would have a close-up of the world; literature students could be stimulated by an Olivier; art devotees treated to a guided tour of the Louvre or see our greatest artists at work; history classes thrilled by a vivid recreation of colonial days in a presentation of Sidney Kingsley's *The Patriots*. The possibilities are endless and fairly stagger the imagination.

As an incidental but highly valuable use, educational television can be employed to serve the millions of handicapped or infirm children who are now unable to attend school. To these unfortunate children whose contact with school is now limited to visits by teachers—visits which can never be frequent enough—supplemental educational programs on their home receivers will add a magic carpet, transporting them almost bodily into the classroom to share many activities with their fellow-students. These programs—allowing the easier integration of these children into the life of their community

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—alone make the educational station a desirable objective.

Yes, educational television will stimulate and enrich the entire teaching process. Only its immediate use by teachers in class can, however, clearly demonstrate its true dimensions for education. Such use can be achieved through the means of television stations, licensed to and run by educational institutions, like Station KUHT of the University of Houston and KTHE, here in Los Angeles.

Outside the classroom, TV is having a tremendous impact on our society. The thoughts and habits of our children and adults are to a striking degree being affected by what they see on television. Some of it is good; much is of no particular consequence and some is actually harmful; but it is a force that you teachers cannot ignore.

The value of television is not limited to children or young people. For, as Professor Charles A. Siepmann said in his *Radio, Television and Society*, "Education is a long process. Indeed, if properly conceived and intelligently pursued, it never ends. Formal education (which alone ends) provides a springboard for what should be a life pursuit. Its task is to make us literate, socially conscious, adaptable and active; competent, to some degree, in our mastery of useful skills; capable of enjoying leisure fruitfully . . ." Educational television can be a potent tool in achieving this aim of education. School-operated educational stations can render an invaluable service to the entire community. They can bring to the public, benefits of the latest research. "To the farmer [this] might mean improved methods of soil cultivation; to the housewife, more economical disposal of the household budget; to parents, a fuller understanding of child psychology, and happier family living; to management and labor, better human relations and higher output, coupled with greater satisfaction on the job, to teachers—and parents of school children—new conceptions of the methods of teaching; to one and sundry, better health

resulting from a more widespread knowledge of medical service." (Siepmann, *Radio, Television and Society*, pages 284-285).

I have been speaking so far about the importance of television to education in general. Now I would like to concentrate for a moment on the importance of this medium to you—the teachers of English to some 37 million students in the schools and colleges of our country. The subject you are teaching forms the foundation for a universal means of communication—the spoken and written word. The familiar lines of Byron impress upon us the power of words:

"But words are things; and a small drop of ink,
Falling, like dew, upon a thought, produces
That which makes thousands, perhaps millions, think."

(Don Juan, Canto iii st. 88)

With the advent of the mass media of communications, how much more pervasive the power of words has become! You English teachers influence the manner in which we express ourselves and understand others. By fostering the appreciation of our cultural and literary heritage, you enable us to communicate with the past. Thus, communications are your business and my business. Yours, as teachers of English; mine, as Commissioner of the Federal Communications Commission. A glance at the program of your meeting suffices to demonstrate that you are deeply aware of your responsibilities in this field. I also note with gratification that today you had on your agenda for discussion, "What are Effective Classroom Uses of Mass Media," and that your topics for tomorrow's session include "The Potential Contribution of Television, Radio and other Mass Media to the Language Arts Program" and "The Teaching of English at the Beginning of the TV Age."

In your efforts to instill in your students the appreciation of fine literature and the habits and value of expressing themselves clearly, simply, and effectively, imagine the aid you would receive from the vibrancy of a Shakespearean production by Margaret Webster or

Lawrence Olivier; imagine the intellectual interest aroused in it by the comments of a brilliant Shakespearean scholar. The average student as well as his parents, who had previously shied away from Shakespeare because of the difficulty of mastering a printed page replete with footnotes, would suddenly discover *Macbeth*, *Julius Caesar*, or *Henry V*.

Educational television cannot, of course, be considered a substitute or replacement for our traditional educational system. It is rather a vital supplement, a strong ally for it. It places the most modern and effective electronic technique at the service of education. No one can doubt the necessity for more and better schools, for the constant improvement and expansion of our secondary, college, and graduate institutions in order to broaden the opportunity for all of our people to develop their capabilities. For it is axiomatic that through such development they may attain greater personal achievement and satisfaction. Knowledge both dignifies and develops the individual. Furthermore, in this way our nation benefits through the improvement of its most important stockpile—its human, cultural, and technical resources. But our existing educational system cannot alone do the difficult job required today or meet the grave responsibilities that modern times have thrust upon it. To do this education must have free access to the mass media of communications, particularly television, the most influential conduit of custom and opinion that has ever been known.

Because television is an educational tool of such potency and importance, educators must have their own stations. Commercial broadcasters cannot undertake to provide adequate time, both day and night, to fill all of the needs that educational television must meet. Education is too important to depend on haphazard promises that will be unfulfilled. While the commercial broadcaster operates in the public interest, he is not an educator. How can we expect any commercial broadcaster to make enough time available for continuing, integrated

presentations designed for all of the educational levels and subjects; for the grade school pupil, the high school and college student, and the adult with their varied needs and requirements? We can't. Education must be left to the experts in the field—the educators themselves, who can devote full time to developing a long-range educational program designed to fit the needs of their particular communities, with their own stations available to them on a full time basis from morning till night.

When the FCC was considering the question of reserving television channels for exclusive noncommercial educational use, many commercial broadcasters were extravagant in their claims that they could provide all the educational television programs needed. The educators knew otherwise, remembering as they did their sad experiences in AM radio where they "missed the boat" mainly because no separate frequencies were reserved for educational radio. It was not until the development of FM that the FCC adequately recognized the special needs of education in broadcasting. In 1941, five channels were set aside for noncommercial educational use and, in 1945, this number was increased to 20 channels (representing 20% of the entire FM band). This has permitted the growth of a large number of educational FM stations—approximately 100 of them—that provide one of the brighter spots in the story of the development of that aural service. The experience of the past made the educators more avid to come forth and assert their case for educational TV reservations. They won; now they must build the stations.

I cannot say too often that only the building of stations completely owned and operated by educational institutions can fully realize the vast potential inherent in educational television. The assignment of channels made by the FCC provide only the opportunity; they are just the bare bones. Assignments without stations will mean nothing more than a skeleton in a museum, a historic relic of little more than academic inter-

est. But the fate of educational television involves more than a test of the vigor and vision of educators. Every day that has passed since the FCC reserved these channels, and every day that will pass until an educational station in your community commences regular operation—every such day represents an incalculable loss to the community, and a personal loss to every child and adult in it. The educators' loss would be merely a whisper of the total deprivation. Failure to build a significant number of these educational stations would represent a tragic waste of our national strength and well-being.

It is gratifying to me to have found that once educational television was understood by the educators, their support was universal. I have not found one segment of education that was not solidly for noncommercial educational TV stations. This support ranged from the American Council on Education to the NEA, from the Association of State Universities and Land Grant Colleges to the Parent Teachers organizations. It is not a local movement, but a national movement encompassing every section of this country.

The results to date have also been most gratifying. 45 applications for noncommercial educational television stations have been filed. Of these, 26 have already received permits to construct these stations. Two stations are in operation and the third will be on the air in the near future.

This is truly a major accomplishment in the light of those skeptics who predicted that there would not be an application filed with the Commission for 10 years and that educational television stations would never see the light of day. Furthermore, I believe that progress to date by those who have filed applications or received construction permits is such that from 25 to 30 stations will be operating in another year.

This record also leads me to believe that the days of "learning the hard way" are over. Yes! I had to learn about educational television the hard way. For, at every turn there were prophets

of adversity who used every means at their disposal to bedevil educational television. You may recall Shaw's remark in the preface to *Pygmalion* that "The English have no respect for their language." It comes to my mind every time I think of all the false statements circulated about educational TV. Their authors surely have no respect for the English language. For, else, how could they use it to no other end than to spread confusion. And so it is that I had to "learn English the hard way"—for, nothing they said has been true. First, they said that the job did not have to be done by educators; then they added that not a single channel would be set aside for them. They were wrong. Next, they forecast that educators would not respond to the opportunity—that educational institutions would not apply for the reserved channels. They were wrong again. Then they proclaimed that educational TV stations would never be built. They were wrong once more. False predictions gave way to misstatements designed to spread confusion. The most serious of these was the misconception that the educational channels were reserved only for one year. It was so widespread that the FCC found it necessary to correct it before the U. S. Senate. Educators and the public now know that this is not the case—that no limit has been placed by the FCC on the duration of the assignments, educational as well as commercial.

While the opposition will no doubt continue to raise its voice, the period of "learning the hard way," I believe, is behind us. We have moved so far in so short a time that, I am sure, nothing the opponents of educational television can do will deter us from our goal. And now that the prophets of adversity have had their day—it will be they who will have to "learn the hard way"; to learn that our goal is an educational television station wherever there are educators who will use one.

At this point, you may ask what you as individuals can do to make non-commercial educational television a reality in your own com-

munities. My answer is, it takes leadership and organization. It is not as hard as some would have you believe.

In your efforts to establish an educational TV station in your town or city you also will come in contact with the prophets of adversity. They will attempt to frighten you with their statements of the high cost of building and operating a station. You will be told that this cost will run into millions. Don't be misled or discouraged, for that is their very purpose.

The cost of building a TV station—like that of building a house—depends on the type of structure desired. You don't need a Taj Mahal to provide adequate educational TV service. There are commercial TV stations whose construction and operating costs amount to a million dollars. There are also those which are being built for far less. The Commission has granted construction permits to commercial operators who plan to build TV stations with construction costs below \$125,000, and operating costs of less than \$100,000 a year. Educational institutions with all their available talent and programming resources can do at least as well if not build and operate at a fraction of the cost.

But the fundamental point to be borne in mind is the importance of getting started, of going on the air—if necessary, with a modest type of operation. After all, this was the way commercial telecasters began in the early days of TV. And educational telecasters, taking their cue from the experienced in this field, should wisely follow the same course. Start slowly but get on the air; and later, when solidly established, extend range and hours of operation.

If you do not know where or how to begin, contact your friends and colleagues in the cities where applications for educational television stations have been filed. I am sure they will

gladly show you the way.

In conclusion, let me emphasize that the solution to the problem of building non-commercial educational television stations lies in community action. You educators cannot build these stations alone. You must have the aid of your community's resources. Educators and the public must work together; they must foster and supplement each other. In this particular instance, the public must support and press for a system of educational television which, operated by the educators, will in turn serve the most vital public needs.

Do not misunderstand me. When I speak of the public, and community action on behalf of educational television, I do not mean that you yourself must get out, contact, and proselytize every member of your community. Rather get the support of a few leaders in each community, the heads of your civic and public welfare groups—your most public-spirited citizens and outstanding educators. With their leadership will come the support of your community. After all, it is you and they—a handful of high-minded men and women—who are the prime force behind every movement that ultimately brings to communities the libraries, the museums, better schools, and hospitals. That is how to spark the drive for these improvements and see them through to a successful conclusion. It is with their help that you—the educators—will make noncommercial educational TV stations a reality throughout the United States. But make no mistake about it—they will only help—the responsibility for the success of educational TV, in the last analysis, rests upon you. These will be your own stations. You will operate them, produce the programs, write the scripts and supply the talent. I am sure you will reach for the stars, for "Too low they build, who build beneath the stars."

Interrelationships between Speech and Other Language Arts Areas

MILDRED A. DAWSON¹

Studies bearing directly on interrelationships

While there have been relatively few studies which were originally intended to determine or measure the interrelationships between speaking and the other language arts, a number of investigations did reveal such interrelationships, even though incidentally or obliquely. Some of these concerned relationships between specific areas of the language arts as between listening and speech, or between oral and written expression. Other investigations yield evidence of the contributions which speaking may make to one or another of the language arts, or vice versa. Still others defined common elements which basically determine certain interrelationships among listening, speaking, writing, and reading. The remaining studies included speech in rather ambiguous fashion since language usage in general was involved, speaking thus being included though not specifically identified.

Relationships between speaking and listening.—In 1936, after studying young children's acquisition of good speech habits, McDowell (41) stated that proficiency in speech is better taught by contagion—or listening to the everyday speech of competent associates—than by drill techniques. Betts (8) makes several statements relative to the influence of listening upon a child's manner of speaking. Listening, as the first stage of language development, forms the base for learning to speak and then develops continuously to buttress further growth in speaking.

The group of listening skills which constitute auditory discrimination is also a factor in learning to speak. In 1948, Hahn (27) reported on her analysis of first grade children's

speech in audience situations. She recommended that a teacher use a conversational tone in her oral reading so as to improve the pupils' voice usage and articulation, and that the teacher train the children to listen for a speaker's ideas in order that they learn how each speaker develops his ideas.

Rossignol (50), in 1948, reported on an extensive study of the relationship between hearing study acuity and speech production for children in the early primary grades. She writes, "Apparently the pronunciation of familiar words in the child's speaking repertory is unrelated to hearing acuity, but the pronunciation of new words, as evidenced in the nonsense syllables test, does vary with hearing acuity. The classroom teacher therefore should take special care in presenting materials containing new and unfamiliar words. The children must have a clear auditory stimulus in learning new words" (p. 37).

Some of the effects of radio listening on the speaking of children were studied and reported by Novokovsky (45) in 1948. In her words: "One of the clearest lessons research has to tell us is that the words children use depend on the *stimuli* they meet. If experience prompts the use, children may, and frequently *do*, use words heard on the air" (p. 103). Novokovsky recommends that there be both a preliminary and a follow-up discussion of new words that children hear on radio programs. In addition, her report lists many speech activities that grew out of radio listening to Philadelphia broadcasts; for example, introductions, telephoning, interviews, individual reports and storytelling, to mention a few.

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Relationships between oral and written communication.—Of the four reports reviewed here, only one was a major study directly concerned with the relationships between speaking and writing. The others, miscellaneous in nature, were either narrow in scope, only incidentally concerned with such relationships, or generalized authoritative statements.

Pooley (47), in surveying the language arts curricula of elementary schools in Wisconsin, ascertained that one-fourth of the language lessons in both rural and city schools consisted of oral discussion leading to written lessons. Thus may instructional practices promote interrelationships between speech and writing. That there may be value in oral discussion preparatory to writing is shown by Strang's statement (57) that many opportunities for oral communication about things of *vital interest* are favorable to effective writing. In comparing oral and written communications of ninth grade children, Lemon and Buswell (39) found low correlations between errors in the speaking and writing of pupils.

In 1930, Bushnell (13) made a careful and extensive analysis of oral and written English. After equating groups of tenth-grade pupils, he secured 100 pairs of compositions consisting of stenographic notes on each pupil's oral composition and a written composition written two weeks later on the same topic. He found written themes to be 6.8 points higher than oral on a scale for thought content, with 93 per cent of the former themes being equal to or exceeding the median of the latter. In sentence structure, written themes exceeded the oral ones by 6.2 points; or 92 per cent equaled or exceeded the median of oral themes. In terms of correlations between oral and written compositions, the correlation in thought content was .42; in sentence structure, .35; and in both, .43.

Bushnell drew the following conclusions from his data: Written themes are consistently superior in thought content and sentence structure and less subject to nearly all kinds of errors.

For any one pupil, oral communication is more fluid, unorganized, and incoherent. Since some pupils do about equally well in both speaking and writing, it appears that the apparent disparity need not exist.

In interpreting results, Bushnell wrote: "There is strong evidence from the data presented here that writing and speaking are not, at this level of maturity, separate, distinct types, with their own peculiar merits and qualities, but that there is merely a continuous gradation from a precise, logical, integrated manner of expression to one of the opposite extreme, and that a pupil's writing is almost certain to be further up this scale than is her speaking. . . . By far the most evident and important difference between the written and oral themes appears to be that of preciseness-looseness. With respect both to certain errors and language usages, and to vocabulary, better speech approaches poorer writing" (pp. 65-66).

Bushnell believed that it might be reasonably inferred that "written English should be used somehow as a guide or model for oral English." While his study was reported more than 20 years ago, his findings may still apply in instances where older pupils need to give an organized and formal report. However, it is well to recall that Strang almost reverses the situation in that she states that written expression becomes increasingly effective as children talk abundantly about matters of vital concern. Normally, oral communication should be fluid and informal, not stereotyped.

Speaking vocabulary and the language arts.—Only as vocabulary size and identity of words are revealed in speaking are most of the following studies pertinent here. As early as 1925, Goodenough (25) in comparing the results of the Stanford-Binet vocabulary test and the reading section of the Stanford Achievement tests found a correlation of .79 between the ability to understand and to explain meanings of words and reading. According to Seashore (53) studies and experimentation prior to 1948

had shown that the size of vocabulary is the best single index for predicting achievement in nearly all language skills, inclusive of those used in speaking.

In 1947, Townsend (61) investigated the relationship of vocabulary size and spelling. She found a tendency for vocabulary-spelling correlations to increase from sixth grade through twelfth, the correlations running as high as .674. Townsend believed that the correlations would have run higher if her measures had been completely reliable. She concluded that "All the evidence at hand shows that there is a definite tendency for good spellers to have superior vocabularies . . . and for retardation to be associated with low vocabulary." (p. 468) Research is still needed to ascertain whether remedial work in vocabulary will tend to increase spelling ability and vice versa, also to determine what types of teaching will most effectively produce gains in both areas.

Mutual contributions of speaking and the other language arts.—In one of the earlier studies bearing on the relation of speech to reading progress, Wilson and collaborators (65) found that "varying abilities to see, hear, and speak . . . do not seem to be closely or critically related to progress in reading as revealed by either the statistical analyses or the case studies" (p. 443). In 1948, ten years later, Rossignol (50) derived contradictory findings after an extensive, carefully controlled study of the relations among hearing acuity, speech production, and reading performance of first and second-grade children. She found that reading performance does vary significantly with speech production, both for familiar words and for those newly introduced. In learning to read, the child progresses in accordance with both his established speech habits and his skill in articulating new words. Teachers, therefore, are advised to correct poor speech habits and to take great care when presenting materials which involve the use of unfamiliar words.

Several articles by Hildreth (28, 29, 31)

confirm and extend Rossignol's findings. Hildreth cites the mounting evidence of the intimate relationships between linguistic ability and reading achievement. These are two-way relationships in which speech serves as the foundation for learning to read printed word symbols and in which reading facilitates improvement in oral expression. For instance, a child's ability to understand and use language orally is known to be a factor in reading readiness. It is also known that the words that a child uses in his conversation constitute the words most easily learned in print. Throughout the process of learning to read, previously learned language associations are an aid. The child's ability to express himself in language, oral or written, indicates his potential for progressing in reading and sets a limit to such progress. Maturity in language facilitates rapid growth in reading. On the other hand, whatever problems a child has in language are likely to appear in his reading.

Hildreth further makes clear that reading makes a contribution toward continued growth in language. For instance, linguistic awareness of new terms, correct sentence structure, and correct forms is fostered. Ideas and vocabulary are greatly enriched. Oral reading constitutes an excellent basis for discussion.

In attempting to make an organismic approach to spelling, Straub (58) found that the related language arts must be used to build up a context of meaning for the words to be learned. Listening to correctly pronounced words, using them meaningfully in oral and written language, and utilizing reading skills involved in word recognition are aspects of the language arts that should be associated with learning to spell words.

Relationships between language usage and other language arts.—Speaking is but ambiguously involved in the studies considered here, since they identified relationships between language usage (oral and written, it is assumed) and the remaining language arts.

In 1950, Artley (4) made an extensive sur-

vey of studies concerned with interrelationships among the language arts. Included were several major doctoral investigations designed to ferret out such interrelationships. One of these by Virgil Hughes (35) found a positive relationship between reading achievement and language usage, the correlation—after being corrected for attenuation—being .67. Hughes also determined the correlation between language and spelling to be .45. Another dissertation by Thomas Blewett (10) established a positive relationship between hearing comprehension (listening) and language usage, a correlation probably lower than that between reading comprehension and language usage.

Artley's survey further revealed findings such as these: Reading achievement is conditioned by the extent to which general language ability has been achieved. The growth curve for reading skills is closely parallel to those for other language arts areas. The degree of parallelism is uncertain, however. Dow and Papp (16), to illustrate, found no significant relationship between reading ability, language ability, and speaking ability, while Aukerman (5) found differences in reading ability to be related to good and poor achievement in eleventh grade English, even when intelligence and other pertinent factors were held constant. Betts (8) states that, with very few exceptions, reasonable facility in the use of language leads to successful achievement in reading activities. De Boer (15) maintains that when a teacher strengthens the child's command of language, she is directly engaged in reading instruction. Young (66) critically reviewed more than a score of studies relating to reading in the social studies. These investigations showed that social studies materials are more meaningful if social studies vocabulary is taught directly and if proficiency in general language usage is sought rather than reading proficiency as such.

Davis (14) found a small but significant correlation between pupils' speech ages in first and second grade and their reading ages. She

reported maturity of speech to be at least a contributing factor in reading reactions.

The preponderance of evidence seems to indicate that there is a significant and positive relationship between proficiency in language usage and other language arts areas. As Betts says, oral language is one of the facets of the language arts, which include listening, reading, and written communication. There are common elements among these various areas.

Common elements among the language arts.—Serviss (55) says that "Language in use embraces all fields in which the child utilizes it for comprehending meaning (reading) and for transmitting and interpreting his ideas to others." (p. 32) This idea is amplified by Russell (52) who says: "Spelling ability is one of a constellation of language arts abilities. These tend to reinforce one another from the first grade at least through the sixth grade level of spelling ability so that the language arts program should be planned in ways to obtain maximum contributions of any one factor to related abilities." (p. 35)

A major factor common to the various language arts is vocabulary—words and their meanings. In the words of Lorge (40), "The words people use in speech or in writing, or read in books, or hear in speech do not stand for a single meaning or a simple referent. . . . Meaning is a function of the ideational and emotional experiences of the interpreter and user of verbal symbols." (p. 552) Betts (8) states that "Vocabulary, as a part of language structure, is a crucial factor in speaking, reading, and writing." (p. 309) He then goes on to show that meanings have their roots in experience, and demonstrates in another article (9) that new vocabulary should be gained through the experience-to-language approach or, in other words, take on meaning through first-hand sensory experiences.

Hildreth (32) reinforces Betts' statements. She shows how an activity program affords language opportunities for increasing vocabulary,

improving speech, and enriching expressional opportunities in general. Reading is correspondingly enriched. Unifying experiences in all the language arts through using the same meaningful content related to actual experiences are likely to strengthen every phase of language development.

Further common elements among the language arts are brought out by Hildreth (29) as she shows children to have the same problems in learning to speak as in learning to read: (1) knowledge of words and their use in syntactical English; (2) grammatical sequences in language; (3) idioms; (4) and shifts of meaning in sentences or paragraphs if the words are altered slightly.

It is apparent that much of the interrelationship among the language arts is due to such common elements as vocabulary and the concepts the words express, the structure of our language, the fact that meaningful experiences strengthen each facet of the language arts, and the carry-over of problems from one aspect of the language arts to another.

Studies bearing indirectly on interrelationships

Frequently investigations launched for one purpose yield findings not foreseen nor directly sought. On the following pages will be reviewed reports of studies which include findings on the interrelationships among the language arts even though the investigators were not seeking to ascertain such relationships.

General relationships of speaking to other language arts.—In attempting to work out a speaking-listening index, Ewing (17) determined how many of the control themes and main ideas an audience could write down after listening to a series of five-minute talks. The speakers and the listeners then compared their respective lists of ideas. After discussing weaknesses in the talks such as vagueness and lack of logical arrangement of ideas, a second series of talks was given to listeners who again listed

themes and main ideas. The second speaking-listening index was twice as great and showed the effects upon an audience's listening when talks are better planned and delivered.

Glasgow (24) compared the results of indistinct and distinct enunciation on listeners' comprehension of both prose and poetry. For 206 sophomore girls, the use of indistinct enunciation reduced comprehension of prose by 57.1 per cent and of poetry by 41.6 per cent. Watts (63), in commenting on the fact that children tend to use the kind and quality of language heard within the family circle, says: "Children adopt the language of grown-ups in so far only as it chimes in harmoniously with their own needs." (p. 246)

Gates (20), in an attempt to improve diagnostic tests in reading, determined the intercorrelations of attainment in school subjects. Among the correlations yielded by a series of 28 tests were .13 between oral vocabulary and spelling; .22 between oral vocabulary and word recognition. Oral vocabulary correlated .10 with oral reading; .07 with silent reading. In 1948, Artley (3) reported on a survey of investigations revealing principles underlying effective spelling instruction. Among the abilities and background contributing to spelling skill were correct pronunciation, careful enunciation, and a knowledge of common meanings and semantic variations of the words—knowledge revealed through speaking in many situations.

After noting that older children tend to use large and imposing words in written work though oral language still employs simpler vocabulary, Watts (63) explained the tendency thus: "Living as they do in a world where the biggest and the largest words seem to be at the command of salesmen and advertisers, children are apt to get the impression that their own written language ought to be a somewhat grander affair than their everyday speech, so that when they take up their pens they ought to discard simple words like *go*, *get*, *give*, *take*, . . . and employ such words in their place as

proceed, procure, present, accept, . . . "We encourage little children to write, not with their attention centred on the need for formal correctness but as they would speak to an intelligent listener." (p. 246; 249) Hildreth (28) maintains that, in writing, children are not so apt to use words learned in formal spelling instruction as they are to use the words of their everyday conversation (pp. 484-85).

Relation of spoken language to reading readiness.—In discussing the implications of language in beginning reading, Adams (1) shows that children are often asked to "read with expression" before they have developed the ability to express their own ideas. While still in the single-idea stage of learning to speak, they are supposed to follow consecutive lines of thought in reading selections. She makes clear that children must have developed considerable ability in oral expression before they can be expected to comprehend or to reproduce through reading the ideas of other persons.

Kopel (37), in making a critical review of the values of specific measures of reading readiness, found language usage to be an important criterion for educational guidance related to such readiness. In an earlier study published in 1936, Gates and Bond (22) made a study of factors determining success or failure in beginning reading which was taught by mass-instruction techniques where books were introduced early in first grade. The pupils' ability in oral expression was tested by their proficiency in completing an unfinished story. These investigators found there to be a fairly high correlation between the general quality of the oral language and the pupils' success in learning to read; but there was little relationship shown between the length of compositions or the number of ideas and success in beginning reading. This early study did little to show relationships between language usage and reading readiness in a situation where reading readiness is promoted before reading in books is begun.

Gates, Bond, and Russell (21) three years

later worked on methods for determining readiness to learn to read. In respect to speech defects, they found that the minor defects found in the children who had been carefully examined for such defects had little effect on learning to read. The correlation of freedom from defects with reading readiness was .10. However, it was believed that serious speech defects might deter learning to read.

In 1943, Betts (7) made a comprehensive review of factors in reading readiness. He stated that the development of reading ability is primarily a problem in language. Children must have acquired a considerable fund of information and reasonable facility in the use of language: clear enunciation, correct pronunciation, a wide vocabulary, mastery of basic sentence structure, and the like. He showed that children who evidence delayed language development constitute a major instructional problem for teachers. For instance, hearing impairment may retard speech development because of incorrect perception of sounds and subsequent mispronunciation, and thus indirectly retard the development of reading readiness. Too, poor auditory discrimination (inability to hear likenesses and differences among words) may contribute to faulty speech habits, such as saying *nick* for *neck*, or in running words together as in *gonna* for *going to*. Accurate discrimination of sounds builds an awareness of speech sounds that are essential to phonetic insight.

Hudson (34) was concerned with reading readiness at the intermediate grade level. He condemned the common practice of assigning reading from textbooks without preliminary discussion that will form a basis for interpretation by clarifying purposes and using the pupils' current background of experiences. Before children are asked to read unfamiliar informational materials, new concepts should be cleared up and the children's mind set should be attuned with the author's. Thus should oral discussion be related to lessons from informational books. Here readiness is a very specific

matter.

Relation of oral vocabulary to other language arts.—In a comprehensive report on vocabulary problems in the elementary school, Seegers (54) showed that the oral vocabulary of children is greater than is their writing vocabulary. According to Strickland (59), the development of primary reading skills involves the learning of symbols which represent words already in the child's vocabulary. If too much time is consumed in mastering such words, there may well be a language-learning plateau because of the "curricular aridity" associated with reading lessons featuring familiar concepts. On the other hand, reading materials may be too far removed from actual experiences for middle- and upper-grade children so that they learn to verbalize ideas which they do not actually comprehend.

Phipps' (46) experimental study on developing ability to read historical materials by building up history vocabulary produced a subsidiary finding concerned with the relation of speaking and reading. He found that the results in general seemed to support the hypothesis that, when ability to comprehend aurally and to express ideas orally is well developed, ability to read is improved.

Interrelationships among the language arts for bilingual children.—In her 1933 study of social, economic, and personal characteristics to reading ability, Ladd (38) observed that good readers tend to come from English-speaking homes and poor readers from foreign-speaking ones. Five years later Bennett (6) found 52 per cent of reading disability cases to come from foreign-language speaking homes. Hildreth (31), in 1949, remarked that case studies have proven retardation in language to be a common accompaniment if not direct cause of reading failures. In most cases, some language difficulties are involved; bilingualism, therefore, tends to mean trouble in learning to read.

In 1945, Tireman (60) reported on a study of the fourth-grade vocabulary of native Span-

ish-speaking children. He found that 46 per cent of 100 words selected from Stone's primary list were not understood by fourth-grade children in their second semester. Even upper-grade pupils were making an excessive number of errors in reading. A year later Rojas (49) wrote an account of an investigation to determine the suitability of vocabulary in readers for bilingual children. She reported that such children need a maximum of practice on the essential features of English. For instance, if they are to learn to read well, they must know the structural patterns of language, such as the order of adjectives, and must learn to recognize sounds used in English words. If the sound system of their vernacular is transferred to English, meaning is confused.

Language arts interrelationships in disability cases.—With one exception, the studies reported here concern reading disabilities; the remaining one deals with spelling disability. All involve interrelationships rather incidentally since disability as such was being investigated.

Spache (56) investigated spelling disability correlates with major attention to factors probably causal in spelling failures. He found a correlation of .60 between spelling and vocabulary knowledge and concluded that this knowledge is a more significant determinant of spelling success than is intelligence, particularly in the first five grades. Meager vocabulary, therefore, is apparently a contributing factor in spelling disability.

In 1941, Gaines (19) reviewed the research related to interrelationships between speech and reading disability. Upon the evidence then available, he concluded that there was as yet too little research, that the results of studies were so conflicting or—in some instances—so unreliable that it was hard to decide what the interrelationships really are. Bond (11), after investigating the auditory and speech characteristics of poor readers, found no significant differences in the incidence of defective speech in good and in poor readers. However, stuttering

did seem to be related to difficulty in reading, thus confirming Murray's (44) careful study reported three years earlier in 1932 which found that stutterers were apparently about one grade below normal in comprehension and two grades below in rate. Bond also reported that his study seemed to show implications that the phonetic type of reading instruction might elicit or accentuate the tendency to stutter.

Several other investigators found evidence of a definite relationship between speech defects and reading disability. Monroe (42, 43), compared a large control group with 5000 problem children. Her data indicated that reading-defect cases have many more speech defects. She believed that defective speech might be considered a factor in reading disability, possibly as one cause of reading defects or perhaps as a result of a common cause. About the same time, in 1931, Anderson and Kelley (2) made an inquiry that showed speech defects to be more frequent among reading disability groups than among normal reading groups, especially among children of low IQ. In 1941, Vaughn (62) studied classroom behavior problems encountered in attempting to teach illiterate defective boys how to read. He found that the poorest readers in the group showed significantly more speech difficulties in the academic rooms that did the good readers.

In more general terms, Fernald (18) stated that rehabilitating language contributed to success with reading disability cases. Buckingham (12) stated that "reading deficiency is quite generally language deficiency." (p. 115) Whipple (64), in considering remedial programs in relation to basic programs of reading, said that one of many contributing causes to reading deficiency among 83 pupils who had been studied intensively was inferior language equipment.

In 1943, Kopel (36) concluded that difficulties in reading have multiple rather than single causation as a rule. Though the factors are sometimes discrete and independent, they

are usually quite complex and likely to occur in closely interrelated constellations. He did not consider speech, therefore, to be a simple "nosological entity." While speech defects *may* contribute to poor reading, Kopel did not believe that the presence of such defects would necessarily predicate reading disability because of the human organism's remarkable powers of adjustment and compensation, especially whenever motivation is strong.

Gellerman (23), in 1949, tried to determine the causal factors in the reading difficulties of elementary school children. His analysis of case studies indicated that speech defects are a precipitant factor in reading difficulties. A precipitant was defined as any factor resulting in decreased reading performance. Robinson's (48) report in 1946 on why pupils fail in reading revealed that certain types of anomalies operates as causes more frequently than others. Speech seemed to do so less frequently than do social, visual, and emotional difficulties. Speech and functional auditory factors were factors in 18 per cent of 22 cases, dyslalia in 14 per cent. In regard to the relationship of speech defects to reading efficiency, Robinson agreed with Gaines (19) that it is impossible to draw final conclusions because researchers in this area do not themselves agree.

Summary: interrelationships and implications

Speaking, along with listening, reading, and written communication, is a facet of the general language arts constellation. That there should be interrelationships among these language arts seems inevitable. There are common elements of vocabulary, language structure, idea relationships, and verbal reasoning. Research has shown parallel growth curves among these language arts. Learnings in one area reinforce the learnings in the others.

Relationships between speaking and listening.—A child speaks the language he hears, especially that of the family circle. Hearing im-

pairment tends to retard language development. He will pick up those new words and concepts he hears to the extent that they harmonize with his interests and background. It is important that he hear such new words correctly and clearly. Poor enunciation, even with words that are familiar, tends to decrease the amount of information the listeners acquire from a talk. Well organized oral discourse produces more effective listening.

Relationships between oral and written discourse.—Oral communication tends to be more fluid, unorganized, and incoherent than is written. However, thoughtfully planned oral discourse can reduce the lack of organization and coherence that characterizes spontaneous speaking. Older children, therefore, should think through reports and explanations whenever their listeners expect to acquire a considerable amount of organized information. It has also been shown that talking over a topic previous to writing on it is favorable to effective writing.

Relationships between speaking and reading.—Facility in the various aspects of the speech skills is a prerequisite to learning to read and is, therefore, the foundation for reading. The beginning reader learns most easily those words which are familiar through firsthand experiences and already implanted in his everyday speech. Until a child has a wide speaking vocabulary, enunciates clearly, talks in sentences, and thinks and speaks sequentially, he can scarcely learn to read with comprehension and ease. Throughout the program of reading instruction, a child's language usage defines his potential for learning to read and sets the limits of his proficiency as a reader. Bilingual children are handicapped unless and until they have mastered the speech patterns of the English language.

On the other hand, reading activities facilitate oral communication. Reading materials afford new terms to be added to the child's meaning and speaking vocabulary; a variety of sentence forms become familiar and tend to

broaden the child's repertory of oral sentence constructions; correct word forms are impressed, especially as oral reading and discussion call for the use of these forms.

In disability cases, speech defects may contribute to poor reading, especially in serious types such as stuttering. Since investigators do not agree as the effects of speech impairment on the ability to read well, no definite conclusion in regard to this matter can be stated at this time. However, it does appear that poor readers do have more speech difficulties than do good readers, whether due to a common cause, or the effects of speech defects on the ability to read is not known definitely.

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Current English Forum

R. L. asks: "What is the correct usage of the expressions 'each other' and 'one another'? The textbook I am familiar with states that 'each other' should be used for two only and 'one another' for more than two. Sometimes, however, I note 'one another' used in reference to two by a supposedly literate writer."

The distinction cited appeared widely in nineteenth century grammars and has been repeated rather uncritically in many grammars of the twentieth century. It seems to have originated as a personal preference on the part of earlier grammarians, as there is no adequate basis for it in literary history. Professor Pooley offers several interesting examples of the fact that the two forms have been used interchangeably by well-known writers.¹ Dr. Samuel Johnson: "Sixteen ministers, who met weekly at each others' houses." John Milton: "These two imparidised in one another's arms." Daniel Webster: "The citizens of different states should know each others' characters." And Thomas Babington Macaulay, a prose stylist of considerable note, wrote: "It is a bad thing that men should hate each other; but it is far worse that they should contract the habit of cutting one another's throats without hatred." In the Leonard-Moffett study the sentence, "The members of that family often laugh at each other," was rated as Standard English by over seventy-five per cent of the judges. Neither the history of English literature nor the present usage of educated people justifies the distinction between the uses of *each other* and *one another*, which has been so widely taught.

J. B. M. inquires: "In a sentence beginning with 'it,' it 'it' properly the subject of the sentence or merely an expletive?"

"It" is one of the most useful words in our language. Let us consider a sentence like "It is Mr. Brown." What is the "subject" of this sentence? There would seem to be two "subjects."

It is functioning as the syntactical subject to enable the sentence to conform to the dominant pattern of the declarative sentence (subject-verb-complement), but *Mr. Brown* is the psychological subject; *Mr. Brown* is what we are talking about. In a sentence like "It is raining," *it* is serving again as a syntactical subject to give us a subject-verb word-order. The psychological subject of the sentence is really expressed in the verb, *is raining*. To call *it* no subject at all in such sentences is to ignore its real function. In "This is Mr. Brown," most English teachers would call *this* the subject of the sentence, classifying *this* as a demonstrative pronoun and *Mr. Brown* as a predicate noun following the linking verb, *is*. Actually in "This is Mr. Brown," *this* is doing no more than *it* in "It is Mr. Brown." In both sentences the introductory word is serving as a syntactical subject, while *Mr. Brown* is the psychological or "real" subject.

The statement frequently made in textbooks that *it* should not be used without an antecedent except in impersonal expressions like *it is raining*, *it is hot*, *it seems*, etc., simply ignores the actual facts of Standard English usage. Students are sometimes needlessly criticized for writing a sentence such as "when an airplane crashes, it is not always the fault of the pilot" on the ground that *it* lacks a specific antecedent. The sentence gains nothing in clarity by being rephrased to "correct the error." "When an airplane crashes, the pilot is not always at fault" is not a better sentence than "When an airplane crashes, it is not always the fault of the pilot." The use of *it* to stand for a clearly understood situation, without a stated antecedent, is a widespread characteristic of the formal, as well as informal, English of educated people.

F. P. A. writes: "Are 'awful' and 'awfully,' so commonly heard in sentences like 'He is an 'Robert C. Pooley, *Teaching English Usage* (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1946), p. 144.

awful person' and "Bill is an awfully good sport; good English?"

The original meaning of *awe*, of course, was great fear or terror. Later the word came to mean reverent fear or veneration, as of the Deity, some great personage, or natural phenomenon. The widespread uses today of the adjective and adverb forms, *awful* and *awfully*, to mean "very bad" (It was an awful storm) and "exceedingly" or "very" (The play was awfully good) are usually classified by dictionaries as "slang." This classification may have been justified when these generalized uses of *awful* and *awfully* first occurred, but these uses

would seem to have become common in the everyday speech of many educated people. Perhaps it would be sensible to say that, while the "loose" uses of these words are acceptable in everyday or informal English, they are still avoided in formal speaking and writing. "Good English" is always relative to the situation; it is not a set of absolutes.

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[Note: This section is sponsored by the Council's Committee on Current English Usage, Margaret M. Bryant, *chairman*.]

The Educational Scene

Edited by WILLIAM A. JENKINS¹

Publishers' Weekly, the book industry trade publication, has revealed that 1953 was a brisker year than usual. More titles were published than ever before—12,050 new books and new editions (11,840 in 1952; 6,548 in 1945; 11,328 in 1940). More juvenile books were produced—1,394 in 1953 as compared with 1,245 in 1952. Juveniles accounted for 12 percent of last year's total.

The leading publisher was Doubleday and its subsidiaries, with 403 titles published.

The Robe, by Lloyd C. Douglas, was the top fiction seller in the bookshops. *The Silver Chalice*, by Thomas B. Costain, also with a religious theme, was second among the novels. War stories were fourth and fifth, represented by *Battle Cry*, by Leon M. Uris, and *From Here to Eternity*, by James Jones.

Nonfiction best sellers were the revised edition of the Bible (1,100,000 copies); *The Power of Positive Thinking*, by Norman Vincent Peale (340,000 copies); *Sexual Behavior in the Human Female*, by Alfred C. Kinsey and his associates; *Angel Unaware*, by Dale E. Rogers; and, *Life Is Worth Living*, by Fulton

J. Sheen. Nonfiction titles far outsold the fiction best sellers in the bookstores.

Other than in bookshops, *From Here to Eternity* led the fiction list with more than 2,000,000 paperback editions sold. Paperback books are not counted in preparing best seller lists. This gives a distorted picture of sales. For example, *Executive Suite*, by Cameron Hawley, sold 24,000 copies in a clothbound edition and 475,000 copies in a simultaneous paper edition.

Bantam Books, Inc. estimates that 259,000,000 copies of paper covered, pocket sized originals and reprints were published, excluding children's books. This figure exceeds by 7,000,000 the estimated production for 1952.



A Letter to Jennifer, by Herbert J. Abraham, is an article in the January *NEA Journal* by a member of the UNESCO Relations Staff of the U. S. National Commission for UNESCO. In the letter Mr. Abraham explains to his 13-year old daughter about UNESCO: why it began, what it has done, what it hopes to do, its relationship to the United Nations, and what it

¹Wisconsin State College, Milwaukee.

costs the American citizen. The discussion is straightforward and simple enough for the advanced upper grades, and informative enough to provide reading of interest to the teacher.



Helping the Physically Limited Child, published by the Board of Education of the City of New York, is a Curriculum Bulletin which outlines the principles, laws, services, curriculum, and teacher role in one phase of exceptional education in New York City. A very excellent bibliography is included. A clue to the approach to the subject is the substitution of *Limited* for the usual *Handicapped* in the title. The treatment is thorough, up-to-date, and sound.



"Why I Teach," a contest for teachers, to encourage good teachers to remain in the teaching profession, and eligible young people to enter it, is again being sponsored by the American Legion Auxiliary. The contest closes at midnight May 1, 1954. Contestants must have completed five years of teaching by June 1, 1954, and each entry must be accompanied by a signed statement of release, giving the American Legion Auxiliary permission to use the entry.

The subject of this year's contest is, "The Purposes and Goals of a Teacher in Free America." The essay should be an open letter to a high school graduate, and the entry may not exceed 300 words nor be less than 100.

Divisional and National awards will be given. The five Divisional winners will each receive a \$50 U. S. savings bond, and the winner, to be chosen from among them, will receive a \$250 U. S. saving bond. In addition, each Department may give an award if it desires. The judges will be selected from an outstanding group of citizens.



Catalog of Free Teaching Aids, compiled by Gordon Salisbury and Robert Sheridan, lists over 2,000 teaching aids which the student may obtain for the asking. The compilers view the catalog as a student resource primarily and give

suggestions as to how they may use it and how to write for materials.

Listings indicate what type the item is (chart, poster, etc.), but evaluations or descriptions are not given. Items are listed alphabetically by topics, and cross-indexing is not so complex that students will have difficulty mastering it.

Copies of the *Catalog of Free Teaching Aids* may be ordered from the compilers at Box 943, Riverside, California. The price per copy is \$1.25.



Materials for Looking and Listening

It's Fun to Find Out is a series of Film-Story Books edited by Paul Witty and the Educational Research Staff of Encyclopaedia Britannica Films. The books, suitable for the lower or the slow middle grade pupils, are based on stories from Britannica films of the same names. They present a simply-written text which follows the film sequence, based on the film narration. Each book includes questions based on the text and a brief vocabulary exercise.

Sixteen titles in the series have been published: *Three Little Kittens*, *Gray Squirrel*, *Shep, the Farm Dog*, *Farm Animals*, *The Fireman*, *The Mailman*, *The Food Store*, *A Day at the Fair*, *Billy and Nanny*, *the Twin Goats*, *Elephants*, *Circus Day in Our Town*, *Airport*, *Tugboats*, *The Bus Driver*, *A Visit with Cowboys*, and *The Doctor*.

The Film-Story Books are available from D. C. Heath and Company at \$.32 each.



Children and TV—Making the Most of It, a new 40-page bulletin, was published recently by the Association for Childhood Education International in response to requests of parents and teachers for immediate help on the problem.

Educators familiar with children and with TV have combined to present a positive and constructive approach to television and family living. The research that has been done in connection with children and television is covered

by Paul Witty. Florence Brumbaugh discusses the effect of television advertising. Alyce Seekamp writes of the teacher's role in utilizing in and out of school experiences with TV. A variety of anecdotes of family solutions to TV in their homes reinforces the points made throughout the bulletin.

Children and TV—Making the Most of It was sent to ACEI members as a part of their regular service. It is also available to non-members for \$.75. Order from Association for Childhood Education International, 1200 15th Street, N.W., Washington 5, D. C.



Motion Pictures, by Samuel Beckoff, is the second in the Oxford Communication-Arts Series (the first was *Radio and Television*). The booklet is designed primarily for secondary English or social studies classes. Fifteen units—questions, activities, readings, and bibliographies—are provided to permit the student to study and appraise the motion picture as a medium of entertainment, as a medium of communication, and as an industry. The price is forty cents per booklet from the Oxford Book Company.



Our Public Schools is a report of the Superintendent of Schools of the City of New York of "The Broadcast Services Radio and Television." Told in brief copy and numerous pictures, the report lists and describes the activities of the Board of Education's FM station, WNYE, and school television programs presented over the commercial television station, WPIX. All aspects of programs beamed to the classes, the high school of the air, and the all-city workshop are among the topics covered in the report.

We think that the activities of WYNE present an admirable picture of what educational radio and television should be. Copies of the report may be available from the Board of Education, 110 Livingston Street, Brooklyn, New York.



Audio Visual Aids for the English Teacher, compiled by Rita J. Kenny and Edward T. Schofield, is reprinted from an issue of *Book, Film, and Radio Guide*, the monthly publication of the Department of Libraries, Visual Aids, and Radio for the Newark (N.J.) Board of Education.

The Pamphlet lists annotations of motion pictures, slides, filmstrips, and recordings for use in junior and senior high schools (some are suitable for upper elementary) in the following areas: English Literature, American Literature, Literature of Other Lands and Times, The Mechanics of English, Books and Libraries, Modern Media of Communication, Business English, and Biography.

Teachers may be able to secure a copy by writing to the Department of Libraries, Visual Aids, and Radio of the Newark Public Schools.



The December, 1953, Supplement to the latest Coronet Films Catalog is now available to teachers and other interested groups.

This two-page supplement contains full descriptions of 22 Coronet films produced since the 1953-54 catalog was issued. Prepared by Coronet to provide information on its newest, the Supplement offers films specifically designed for primary, intermediate, and high school levels.

The Supplement may be obtained by writing to Coronet Films, Coronet Building, Chicago 1.



The New York State English Council will hold its annual conference, April 30-May 1, in the Hotel Syracuse at Syracuse. Principal speaker will be Bernard DeVoto, who requires no identification as historian, novelist, critic, and publicist. Theme of the conference will be "The Language Arts in Relation to Human Personality." A feature will be a symposium of experts dealing with "What the High-School English Teachers Should Know." Other panels will deal with techniques of English instruction from the

elementary school through the college and university.



Here are the Junior Literary Guild selections for the month of April, 1954:

For boys and girls 5 and 6 years old: *Little Frightened Tiger*, by Golden MacDonald. Doubleday and Company, \$2.50.

For boys and girls 7 and 8 years old: *Lazy Liza Lizard's Tricks*, by Marie Curtis Rains. John C. Winston Company, \$2.00.

For boys and girls 9, 10, and 11 years old: *Why We Live Where We Live*, by Eva Knox Evans. Little, Brown and Company, \$3.00.

For girls 12 to 16 years old: *Alicia*, by Florence Crannell Means. Houghton Mifflin Company, \$2.75.

For boys 12 to 16 years old: *Outlaws of the Sourland*, by Keith Robertson. The Viking Press, Inc., \$2.50.



Teachers College, Columbia University, announces a Conference on the Language Arts in the Education of Children and Youth. The conference will be held July 5 through July 9—the week following the N.E.A. National Convention in New York. This conference is designed to meet the needs of elementary, secondary, and college teachers. Attention will be focused on

the teaching of reading, writing, speaking, and listening with a view to improvement of practice in local situations.

General meetings will deal with the relationships of the language arts to cultural and psychological aspects of child development; with means for providing for growth in reading, writing, speaking and listening; and with problems involved in maintaining freedom in communication in modern culture.

Small groups will be concerned with such topics as beginning reading, increasing maturity in reading, materials for reluctant readers, exploring new books, choral reading, creative dramatics, speech improvement, group discussion, experimental procedures in listening and writing, and films and recordings for understanding children and youth.

The conference will be staffed by prominent educators from Teachers College faculty in the fields of childhood education, youth education, teaching of English, teaching of speech, psychology, and child development, as well as by visiting specialists. Graduate credit may be earned by those who desire it.

For specific information, write to a member of the planning committee, Dr. Roma Gans, Dr. Francis Shoemaker, or Dr. Magdalene Kramer.



BOOKS FOR CHILDREN

EDITED BY MAY HILL ARBUTHNOT

May Hill Arbuthnot is well-known as teacher, writer, and lecturer in the field of children's books. She is author of the volume, CHILDREN AND BOOKS (Scott, Foresman, 1947) and editor of the new Arbuthnot Anthology of Children's Literature, Scott, Foresman, 1953.

For the early and middle grades

Shadrach. Written by Meindert DeJong. Illustrated by Maurice Sendak. Harper, 1953. \$2.50. (6-9)

The book begins, "There was this boy, Davie, and he was going to have a rabbit. His grandfather had promised it. A real, live rabbit! A little black rabbit, if possible. In a week, if possible. And this was in the Netherlands." But a week of waiting is as hard for a young child in America or China as it is in the Netherlands,



From *Shadrach*

so Davie's seven whole days of anticipation are understandable torture to a child of any land. The torture made Davie jumpy and led to several mishaps and some punishments. But after a name for the rabbit was settled in his mind, "Shadrach," a black sort of a name, then a little song began to sing inside Davie. "Shadrach," he sang inside and sometimes outside, "little black rabbit. Fairest of ten thousand to my soul!" Even after the rabbit arrived to fill the empty hutch and the heart of Davie, all was not peace. The "fairest to my soul" grew thinner and thinner and no one could think why. At last one day, Davie the delicate became Davie the intrepid and solved the problem that was really quite horrible. But he had his rabbit back. "In all this world, it was his." So the book ends.

Mr. DeJong is one of the most original writers in the juvenile field. This book is beautifully written with rare perception of the eternity of time to a child and of his passionate hopes, despairs, fears, and ecstasies. It is a sermon for grownups and one of the most moving books of the year. Is it for children? Only time will tell, but no one who reads it will forget Davie and his "fairest to my soul."

Magic Maize. By Mary and Conrad Buff. Houghton, 1953. \$3.00 (8-12)

Burning the fields before planting, hot corn mush for the Wind Gods and the Gods of the fields, these and other rites Fabian's sad old father performed faithfully. Still the maize grew poorly and food was scarce. Fabian, a Guatemalan Indian boy, pitied his father but he also sympathized with his brother Quinn who had broken with the old ways. Quinn had left home to work in the world of the foreigners his father feared and hated. One day, Quinn returned long enough to give Fabian twenty kernels of a new kind of corn the foreigners wanted the Indians to try. Fabian planted the corn secretly and it led to a series of strange adventures and a better way of life for Fabian and his whole family.

This is a sympathetic study of the old beliefs of an isolated people in conflict with new ideas, new ways, and strange people. The story is simply told with colorful details of folk ways and enough suspense to make good reading. Mrs. Buff's evident liking for the Guatemalans is reinforced by Mr. Buff's superb pictures. The bright-eyed, curious gaze of young Fabian, peering out from under his jaunty straw hat, is in youthful contrast to the strong, worn, patient faces of the older people. Mr. Buff has also captured the glorious color of the tropics and almost the shimmer of heat. This beautiful and significant book makes another people and another way of life understandable to children and worthy of their sympathetic respect.

Appolonia's Valentine. Katherine Milhous. Illustrated by the author. Scribner's, 1954. \$2.00. (8-12)

The Caldecott Medal book, *The Egg Tree*, by Katherine Milhous added immeasurably to school festivities for the Easter season. Now, *Appolonia's Valentine* should launch young artists on a fine frenzy of paper work for Valentine's Day. Because, as Appolonia knew full well, "tokens of love and friendship" which you make yourself mean far more than those you buy. And such tokens are needed not only for Valentine's Day but for birthdays or when

someone is sick or most any time. Even so Apple, for short, was having a hard time. All the boys and girls from the Pennsylvania Dutch families to which Apple belonged, were handy with their scissors and made beautiful cut out valentines—even her brother Dan. But Apple could do nothing with scissors, so she decided to paint hers. After a struggle she produced a beauty and this gay, handsome book shows Apple's valentine and Dan's and a lot of others. They were so captivating that this reviewer had to drop everything and try one, with a romantic West Highland dog for the central figure. The children of the Bucks County fourth grade did better, but we mean to try again. Such will undoubtedly be the effect of this book on children. *Winona's Pony Cart.* Maud Hart Lovelace. Illustrated by Vera Neville. Crowell, 1953. \$2.00 (7-10)

Girls who love the *Betsy-Tacy* books will enjoy this story of Winona, a near neighbor of Betsy, Tacy and Tib. Winona's mother wanted her daughter to be more "dignified," and Winona thought she might manage to if she got a pony for her eighth birthday. Impossible, the grownups assured her, but Winona kept hoping. She also kept inviting extra children to her birthday party without bothering to tell her mother. So when the birthday arrived it was Winona's mother who was the most surprised—with a mob of unexpected but beaming guests. Winona wasn't in the least surprised when a beautiful pony and cart were forthcoming. She had been sure of them all along. But when the party was over and she learned that they were only rented for the afternoon, she was inconsolable. The conclusion will satisfy young readers who can readily understand Winona's state of mind and emotions. This is a thoroughly amusing story and more. Winona's splendid hospitality is fairly usual and so too are her wide and democratic friendships. One of the pleasantest things about the story (grownups take notice), is the way Winona's mother rises to the emergency of the uninvited

guests with complete kindness and consideration for each one.

When the Moon is New. Written and illustrated by Laura Bannon. Whitman, 1953. \$2.75. (8-10)

Laura Bannon could make the denizens of skid row look beautiful. So it will be no surprise to the saddened observers of the poverty and squalor of Seminole Indian camps to find them looking clean and sanitary in this handsome book. However, no one could exaggerate the mysterious loveliness of the Florida Everglades nor the decorative beauty of the Seminole shirts and skirts, sewed from "a thousand pieces," and the colorful beads and handsome hairdress of the women. All these are recorded in some of



From *When the Moon Is New*

Miss Bannon's finest pictures. The story is slight. Rainbow Jumper is sent to visit her Aunt Liddy at Gopher Camp "until the moon is new." Then she is to return home and find a great surprise. Rainbow Jumper is skillful with her sewing, so she thinks the surprise is going to be a sewing machine of her own. Instead it is something much more precious—a new baby! Family affection and understanding, the Seminole way of life are pleasantly presented and the pictures are lovely.

Jasper. Written and illustrated by Eleanor Frances Lattimore. Morrow, 1953. \$2.00 (6-10)

Jasper is a Negro child, living on an island beyond the big bridge that leads to Charleston. But his adventures might happen to any six-year-old. They have to do with learning to tie your own shoe laces, learning not to fool with



From *Jasper*

cows, learning the difference between goats and ghosts, learning that cat food is for cats, and finally the climactic joys of a new motor boat for the family. These make up Jasper's way of life. A happy family, a beautiful out-of-door world give warmth to Jasper's everyday activities.

Robins in the Garden. Written and illustrated by Olive Earle. Morrow, 1953. \$2.00 (5-10)

Now that the time of robins has come and their voices are heard in a large section of our land, let's remember that they are the child's own bird. Where robins abound, they are the first bird the child knows by sight and sound, the first to be welcomed in the spring and the vocal companions of his summer play. Yet here is the first book for children with the robins' complete story. Miss Earle's exquisite drawings



From *Robins in the Garden*

and appealing text follow these birds from their first snowy day in the Northern spring to their migration in the fall. The nest building is shown, the foolishness of the downy robin babies, the stalking cat for suspense, the wild alarm of the parent birds and the rescue are all there, and much more. A factual book which is done with extraordinary artistry both pictorially and verbally.

For middle and upper grades

And Now Miguel. Written by Joseph Krumboltz. Illustrated by Jean Charlot. Crowell, 1953. \$2.75. (10-)

This outstanding story began life as a documentary film sent out by the State Department for overseas distribution. Mr. Krumboltz has retold it for children, but it is the kind of book that has no age limits. It will delight the whole family and is admirable for reading aloud.

The story is told in the first person by twelve-year-old Miguel who has a secret wish. He is troubled because he is the middle child and the family continually groups him with seven-year-old Pedro and the giddy Faustina who is only five, instead of with his older brothers and sisters, especially the wonderful Gabriel. The Chavez men have been sheep herders for generations, first in Spain and now in New Mexico. Miguel's secret wish is to be accepted as a man among the men, and so be allowed to make the summer journey to the Sangre de Cristo Mountains to feed and guard the sheep. But always they tell him he is too young. When the story begins, Miguel has decided to prove to his father how well he knows and can carry out every part of the sheep herding business. Sometimes he fails, sometimes he succeeds, but still his father says he is not ready. In desperation, Miguel carries his wish to his patron Saint, San Ysidro, and prays that the Saint will bring it about *by any means*. Then it happens. His father says he can go to the mountains with the men but only because the adored Gabriel has been drafted. Horrified, Miguel tries to per-

suade the Saint to take it all back. He, Miguel will wait, if only Gabriel can stay home. The solution Miguel and Gabriel work out, includes the longest and most touching discussion of prayer to be found in a child's story.

This is a unique book, notable for the distinction of its theme and its style. Every detail of sheep raising is described including a birth, told with the dispassionate clarity and forthright language of the twelve-year-old Miguel. The pride in the family calling, to be *pastores* to the sheep, is on every page. The pain and problems of growing up take hold of the reader as poignantly as they afflict Miguel. Even the minor characters are well drawn and unforgettable. The boy's brief descriptions of the land, the scenes of birthing, shearing, taking off for the mountains, in the dark before the dawn, all work their special magic. Only the somber jacket is depressing and misrepresents the humorous, touching, and colorful story. Nor do Charlot's drawings do it full justice. Usually the strength and stark simplicity of his pictures are impressive. But in this book they do not measure up to the vivid word pictures and characterizations of the story. Nevertheless, this is a choice book, perhaps the best of the year.

Tree Wagon. Written by Evelyn Sibley Lampman. Illustrated by Robert Frankenberg. Doubleday, 1953. \$2.75. (10-14)

This book contains the most graphic account of a journey Westward by wagon train that we have read. It is impressive historically, thoroughly entertaining, and well written. The author vouches for its authenticity and the reality of the lively heroine, Asenath, "Seenie" and some of her escapades.

In 1847 Henderson Luelling, his wife and eight children, set off for Oregon with seven wagons and two other families. Their train differed from others because Luelling was a nurseryman and one of his wagons carried 700 grafted fruit trees. With these he planned to stock the Oregon wilderness. When the story

opens, Seenie is hiding in the chicken house feeling much abused because her father won't let her take her cat and six kittens along. When her father patiently explains why, he also gives her a new pet—a gooseberry bush for her very own! Seenie is out-raged, but far too fond of



From *Tree Wagon*

her father to let him see how she feels about that old bush. Incidentally, the ups and downs of that poor bush are a barometer of Seenie's lapses from and growth in responsibility. Their party joins other wagon trains, but eventually, the leaders decide the tree wagon slows them up dangerously, so the Luellings and Hocketts travel alone over mountains, through deserts and Indian country. Hostile Indians swoop down on them with war cries, but at the sight of the treewagon become peaceful and give the Luellings much needed aid. They learned later that Indians believed spirits live in the trees, and so the much criticized tree wagon actually saved their lives, again and again. Seenie and Peter Hocket have some amusing adventures and some dangerous ones. They found the names of Kit Carson and Fremont carved on rocks and encountered Marcus Whitman shortly before the massacre. Eventually the Luellings and Hocketts reached Oregon safely with 350 surviving fruit trees and Seenie's flourishing gooseberry bush. It had worn her best petticoat

all across the desert and now at last, was the only gooseberry bush in Oregon! Seenie had also just about done with day dreaming heroics and had turned into a proud and promising nursery man's assistant.

The Other Side of the Fence. Written by John Tunis. Morrow, 1953. \$2.50 (11-)

With this book an eleven-year-old discovered John Tunis, and made a pronouncement that is usual with boys, "That's the best book I ever read." The critics, judging by standards of juvenile *belles lettres*, would not agree but they have to admit that Mr. Tunis knows boys and sports, writes in the vernacular of both, and contributes richly to youth's understanding of complex human relationships and of the virtues of self discipline. No mean achievement and a contribution youth welcomes and needs.

Robin's family belongs to the comfortable Country Club set and Robin shows signs of making a first rate golfer. His friend Butch does not belong to Robin's social set but is the proud owner of an ancient Ford and some adventurous ideas. The two boys want to make a cross country trip in the Ford, and Robin wins his family's reluctant consent. The friends hope to work their way by caddying at Country Clubs, but the work is not as easy to get as they hoped. When the Ford develops internal troubles and Butch gets ideas that do not meet Robin's code of ethics, Robin knows he has made a mistake and the two boys part company. Instead of running home to his family, Robin decides to go it on his own and the going is grim. His experiences are sometimes pleasant and sometimes hair raising, but he does reach California. There he has an amusing evening on a Quiz Show, runs into some major athletes who are disciplined to perfection and finally, on his return trip, reaches Detroit and a golf tournament for boys. Here again the emphasis is on stern, self-denying discipline. Robin loses the prize but wins some valuable lessons and meets his father with a new appreciation of his

parents and especially of his father's plans for his son.

America before Man. Written by Elizabeth Chesley Baity. Illustrated by C. B. Falls. Viking, 1953. (12-)

Man the Weaver and *Americans before Columbus* have made Mrs. Baity's name popular and respected by young people and grownups in search of information. *America before Man* will bring youth up to date on prehistoric America. There are 34 plates that will lure the reader into an exploration of the text that follows. This is further illumined by C. B. Falls' lively illustrations. Mrs. Baity's text is so clear and informative that it keeps the reader turning pages for the next development. Prehistoric monsters are fairly familiar to this generation but such details as the evolution, development, and extermination of the horse, for instance, will be new to most youngsters. The effects of the ice age, the lure of Florida and California for the refugees from deep freeze, are dramatically told. This is a book for the whole family to use together and treasure.

Golden Slippers. Written by Lee Wyndam. Illustrated by Vera Bock. Longmans, 1953. \$2.75. 11-)

Mrs. Wyndam can tell a rousing story for teen age girls but in the case of *Slipper under Glass* and its sequel *Golden Slippers*, preadolescent girls will like them also. Both books follow the induction of Maggie Jones into the training, techniques, and routines of ballet dancing. This second book carries her into the thrilling world of the professional ballet company of which Maggie is a part. Maggie, it must be admitted, has more than the ordinary good luck. A wealthy aunt pays her way and provides a luxurious background for her. And novice though she is, she does not have to begin in the chorus but is unexpectedly chosen for a special part. Here is where the conflict begins. When Maggie finds she has been chosen not for classic ballet but for comedy, she is crushed. Her clever,

comic partner outrages her and she treats him to more bursts of temperament than a prima ballerina. Eventually, her good sense and natural kindness conquer her egotistical ambitions and she rises warmly and generously to some surprising emergencies.

The details of movie making, T.V. appearances, publicity stunts, endless practice, tensions, and strains are a part of Maggie's experiences. Young readers will enjoy all of them and Maggie's budding romance as well. Mrs. Wyndam makes such a strong case for ballet as a cure-all and a career that these two books will doubtless start many a youngster to practicing, even if the good old bedroom doorknob must serve temporarily as a *barre*.

Picture books

A Book about God. Written by Florence Mary Fitch. Illustrated by Leonard Weisgard. Lothrop, 1953. \$2.00. (4-6)

The well known author of *One God* has attempted that most difficult of all books, a young child's introduction to the idea of God. Leonard Weisgard's pictures, in muted colors, with a sense of vastness, have caught precisely the mood of exploring wonder and awe the text seeks to establish. "Everyone wonders about God," the book begins, "But we don't need to see God to know what He is like. We only need to think about the things that are like Him." Then comes a series of analogies, showing how the sun is like God, the air, rain, sea, and growing things. These comparisons are beautifully done, both with words and pictures, and the book concludes, "No one can count the ways God shows His love." Specific theological concepts are, of course, omitted. But isn't there danger in this approach, identifying God with nature only when nature is favorable to man? What about destructive floods, droughts, hurricanes, and tornadoes? Are those like God? That question is bound to follow such an approach.

Green Eyes. Written and illustrated by A. Birnbaum. Capitol, 1953. \$2.50. (4-6)

Obviously *Green Eyes* is an unusual cat since he writes his own story and only calls upon Mr. Birnbaum of the *New Yorker*, to make the pictures. *Green Eyes* tells the story of his first two years and his enjoyment of the spring flowers, cool grasses in summer, chasing leaves in autumn, and his box close to the radiator during the season of snow and ice. If the story is slight, Mr. Birnbaum's illustrations add needful richness. Here are pictures so full of action, fun, and the bigness of the world, so brilliant in color and bold in design, that they captivate and convince. Children will share with *Green Eyes* his pleasures in a bright, changing world and rejoice in his sense of snug security. A distinguished picture book.

The Village Tree. Written and illustrated by Taro Yashima. Viking, 1953. \$2.50. (5-8)

The artist-author of this beautiful book has recalled the huge tree on the river banks of the Japanese village where he lived as a child. The tree seemed to be waiting for the children to come there and play. They climbed its wide branches, swam and splashed at its feet, rested or played in its shade. And when they went home at night they knew the tree would wait for their return. Such is the story, and village children all over the world know such a tree, if their village has shady river banks. Gay, delicate pictures, full of movement and fun, catch the evanescent charm of children at play.

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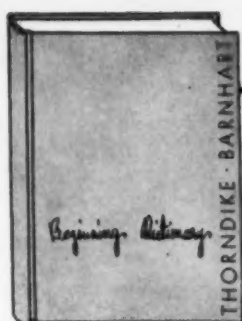
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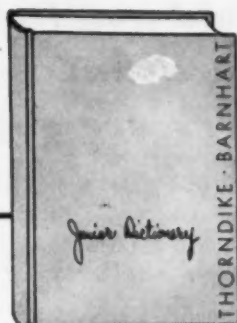
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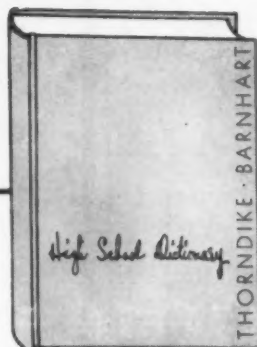
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